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ABSTRACT

The conference, held in Boston on February 25, 1928, was called by the United States Commissioner of Education to address problems concerned with the professional preparation of rural school teachers. It was attended by persons engaged in the special preparation of teachers, supervisors, and administrators for rural school positions representing 30 States. This bulletin contains abstracts of the addresses delivered at the conference. These abstracts were prepared from copies of the addresses or abstracts of them furnished by the speakers who prepared or delivered them. The abstracts cover: the use of activity analysis in constructing curricula for rural teachers; analysis of duties pertaining to the job of teaching in the one-room school; the nature and extent of curriculum differentiation in the training of rural school teachers; the rural curriculum as judged by graduates; the follow-up activities of a teacher-training institution with its graduates in rural schools; adjustment of the supply of and demand for qualified teachers--the State's problem; State legislation and regulations to guarantee an adequate professional staff for rural school positions; application of standard courses to the specialized needs of rural teachers; in-service training for rural school teachers--needs and facilities; and recent progress in preparing the personnel for positions in rural education. (NQ)

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1928, No. 6

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

Abstracts of Addresses Delivered at a Conference Called by the United States Commissioner of Education, at the Lenox Hotel, Boston, February 25, 1928

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PREPARED IN THE RURAL EDUCATION DIVISION

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., April 28, 1928.

SIR: It is not the policy of the Bureau of Education, except under unusual circumstances, to add to the large number of valuable conferences on important educational subjects now provided. It is, however, inevitable in a changing world that in a field in which efficiency is so dependent on the rapid growth and spread of progressive ideas and practices as education, there should be from time to time certain acute situations which in the general and ordinary course of events are not adequately met. When such a condition arises, there is insistent demand from those most interested for an opportunity to bring together the results of research and experimentation available in the field under consideration. The conference which I called in Boston, February 25, to consider the professional preparation of teachers for rural schools was an effort to meet such a situation and to satisfy such a demand. The proceedings represent new contributions to the field of rural-teacher preparation and are of nation-wide interest and importance. I recommend, therefore, that they be published as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education.

JNO. J. TIGERT, *Commissioner.*

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

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PROGRAM OF THE CONFERENCE

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1928, 9 O'CLOCK A. M.

Ernest Burnham, Western State Teachers College, Michigan, Presiding

The purpose of the conference—*John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education.*

Job analysis as a basis for constructing rural curricula—*William S. Gray, University of Chicago.*

Discussion—*Verne McGuffey, Colorado.*

The extent and criteria of curriculum differentiation for the preparation of rural elementary school-teachers—*W. C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University.*

The rural curriculum as judged by graduates—*Wm. McKinley Robinson, Western State Teachers College, Michigan.*

The follow-up activities of a teacher-preparing institution with its graduates in rural schools—*E. C. Higbie, Eastern State Normal School, South Dakota.*

1.30 O'CLOCK P. M.

Mabel Carney, Teachers College, Columbia University, Presiding

The adjustment of the supply of and demand for qualified teachers—The State's problem.

(*a*) *Alonzo F. Myers, Ohio University.*

(*b*) *C. Everett Myers, Pennsylvania.*

State legislation and regulations to guarantee an adequate professional staff for rural school positions—*Ned Dearborn, State Department of Education, New York.*

Discussion—The application of standard two, three, and four year courses to the specialized needs of rural school-teachers—*R. L. Bunting, Sam Houston State Teachers' College, Texas.*

In-service training for rural teachers—The needs and the facilities—*E. L. Hendricks, Central Missouri State Teachers' College.*

Recent progress in preparing the personnel for positions in rural education—*J. E. Butterworth, Cornell University.*

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

Introductory Statement

This bulletin contains abstracts of the addresses delivered at a conference called by the United States Commissioner of Education to consider problems concerned with the professional preparation of teachers for rural schools. They were prepared from copies of the addresses or abstracts of them furnished by the speakers who prepared or delivered them. The conference was held at the Lenox Hotel, Boston, on the morning and afternoon of February 25, 1928. It was attended by persons engaged in the special preparation of teachers, supervisors, and administrators for rural-school positions representing 30 States.

The conference was called to order by the Commissioner of Education, Dr. John J. Tigert, who explained briefly the policy of the Bureau of Education concerning the calling of conferences and who set forth the special purposes of this particular conference in substance as follows:

THE PURPOSE OF THE CONFERENCE

By JOHN J. TIGERT

United States Commissioner of Education

There is evident in education a new realization of the importance of personnel—administrative, supervising, and teaching. We have aimed to protect children from inefficient teaching through certification laws and regulations and through the establishment of teacher-preparing institutions. We are beginning to ask, Of what use are certification laws, even those requiring high standards of qualifications, if not fitted to the case or not intelligently enforced? Is it sound judgment to spend money on training teachers for a relatively small percentage of our children only if we hope to realize our dream of universal education? If we accept the principle of specialization, how shall training curricula be formulated? Of what

use to spend money training teachers for special fields of work and then exercise no care in providing that they pursue that specific field?

In the present chaos of the whole teaching situation, including problems of certification, adequate staffing, specialized curriculum needs, intelligent selection of courses and fields of work, placement in harmony with specialized training, and the like, rural schools are the principal sufferers. There is no need to cite special data. In every State it is well known that the unprepared gravitate to rural teaching positions, especially to those in one-teacher schools. The farmer pays his share for the support of the higher institutions of learning in his State, including those devoted to training teachers. Does he get his proportionate return in service? Everywhere the answer is apparent.

Large numbers of children in rural schools are still deprived of the services of trained teachers in spite of the fact that there is no scarcity—in many instances there is a surplus—of persons holding teaching certificates and therefore legally qualified to teach. Indeed, in many States trained persons are unable to secure teaching positions while unprepared or inadequately prepared persons absorb them. The situation is further complicated by the fact that, of the relatively small percentage of professionally prepared teachers in rural schools, the majority were trained for city and other graded school positions. Placed in one and two teacher school positions in which they are confronted with situations for which they have little or no special preparation, their success is problematical.

The problem of adequately staffing rural school positions involves a scientific study of the whole field. Like so many other questions, it is one of State responsibility for establishing an adequate school system in all its parts. A number of problems concerned with the teaching situation from a state-wide point of view are practically unattacked. Among those of special importance to progress in rural education are:

(1) Knowledge (state-wide) of the number of teaching positions for which special preparation is needed.

(2) Courses or curricula which offer training in agreement with the demands of positions in service.

(3) Knowledge of the number of annual replacements in the several types of positions as a basis for the establishment of facilities to insure a sufficient number of trained persons for each type and avoid a surplus in any one; in other words, a basis for regulating the supply and demand on a state-wide scale.

(4) Guidance for students within teacher-preparing institutions in the selection of curricula. Consideration should be given to individual preferences and abilities and to the necessity of harmonizing

the enrollment in the several specialized curricula with the forecast of State needs as revealed by studies of necessary replacements, thus insuring to a reasonable degree that when courses are completed there will be enough trained persons for the positions available and enough positions of the types for which persons are trained.

(5) Intelligent plans for placement of trained personnel to avoid placing persons trained for one type of work in positions actually needing those trained for another.

(6) Follow-up work by teacher-preparing institutions which will enable an institution to keep in touch with the success and failure of its graduates and consider these practical results in the revision of courses, methods, organization, etc., thus basing curricula offered on continuing analyses of the service situation.

(7) A State program for systematic in-service training involving intelligent cooperation of administrators, supervisors, teachers, and teacher-training institutions.

This conference was called to consider certain of the neglected but important phases of these problems as they affect the training, selection, placement, and maintenance of an adequate staff of teachers for *rural* schools. We can not have better rural schools until they are staffed with better teachers. We can not get and keep at the highest potential efficiency an adequate staff of such teachers until we have state-wide coordinated programs of teacher training, certificating, and placement service. An intelligent solution of our urgent problems of teaching personnel involves cooperative research and effort on a broader basis than we have yet realized.

THE USE OF ACTIVITY ANALYSIS IN CONSTRUCTING CURRICULA FOR RURAL TEACHERS

WILLIAM S. GRAY, University of Chicago

The crucial step in the construction of curricula for rural teachers involves the selection of appropriate materials. Teacher-training institutions have been at liberty in the past to include in such curricula any portions of our racial experience that seemed useful. The differences, uncertainties, and perplexities which exist at present arise from the lack of agreement as to what is useful. No one in the past, as Charters points out, has known precisely what the most valuable content is that should be taught; what the full range of duties of different types of teachers is; and which among the duties performed are most frequent, most difficult to learn, and most important. Furthermore, there has been little or no agreement as to the best procedures to adopt in training prospective teachers to perform their duties well.

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Distinct progress in the selection of curricular materials for rural teachers followed the adoption of the principle of differentiation. This principle implies that the problems which teachers encounter in different types of schools vary to a greater or less extent. It is obvious, for example, that the subject matter demands made upon rural elementary teachers are radically different from those made on a first-grade teacher in a city school or on a science teacher in either a city or rural high school. It is also apparent that the problems of classroom organization and management in a rural school differ radically from those in a large, highly organized elementary school, with its library, assembly hall, special classrooms, and gymnasium. Furthermore, the information essential to an understanding of the environment from which pupils come and of their attitudes, interests, and habits differs notably for the rural teachers of Iowa and the teachers in the foreign districts and in the black belt of Chicago.

Once the principle of differentiation had been adopted, analytical studies were made to determine the common elements and the variants in curricula adapted to the needs of different types of teachers. The nature of these studies and some of the important lessons which they taught can be illustrated concretely by reference to a personal experience. It was my good fortune two years ago to devote half of my time to an intensive study of ways and means of reorganizing and improving instruction in reading in more than 20 schools, including rural, village, and highly organized city schools. More than 200 teachers cooperated and looked to me for training and guidance. One of the early steps in this enterprise was to organize a practical but valid program of reading instruction, such as might be presented in a course for prospective teachers. In this connection various procedures were adopted. For example, the uses of reading in modern life were studied as a step in determining the major objectives of teaching reading to-day. Studies were made of growth periods in reading achievement to determine the phases of reading that should be emphasized at the various grade levels; the interests of children were studied to determine the types of material that would prove most interesting; the results of experiments were studied to determine the best methods of teaching both silent and oral reading; not infrequently the judgments of frontier thinkers were utilized in securing tentative answers to debatable questions. In fact, practically all of the 11 methods of curriculum approach discussed recently by the special appraisal committees of Denver were utilized. At each step in the development of the reading program an effort was made to adapt it to the needs of different types of schools. Having taught a year in a rural school, I felt somewhat at home in attempting to outline desirable procedures for rural teachers to follow.

Cooperation with teachers in the field had not proceeded far before certain expectations were verified. For example, it was found that the rural teacher needed much the same type of information as other teachers concerning the major objectives and specific aims of teaching reading, the general nature of the reading process, the distinction between oral and silent reading, the differences between good and poor readers, and effective methods of establishing reading habits, interests, and appreciations. On the other hand, many of the procedures suggested were not at all adapted to the specific situations which this teacher faced. For example, there were few supplementary and library books, no reading tables or comfortable chairs for the younger children, no books or children's magazines relating to matters of special interest in rural communities, and very little productive seat work. The first problem which the teacher of Cook School faced was to determine types of material adapted to the needs of her pupils, where they could be secured, and the cost. Her problem in this connection was quite different from that of the teachers in a near-by cooperating city of 30,000 who had access to an exhibit of appropriate materials and the advice and council of well-trained supervisors.

A second problem which the teacher faced was to sell to the members of her school board the idea that an adequate supply of reading material was needed. This was a second activity for which her previous training had not adequately prepared her. However, after some coaching she bombarded individually and collectively what seemed at first an impregnable board until they finally contributed over $200 for the purchase of needed supplies. During the course of the experiment scores of problems presented themselves which required careful analysis of the teacher's activities, essential traits, and the conditions under which she worked. The study demonstrated conclusively, however, that professional training can not be planned successfully without a clear accurate knowledge of the demands which are made on teachers and of the activities in which they do and should engage. Because the value of activity analysis can be illustrated much more clearly at present in constructing professional courses for teachers than in constructing subject-matter courses for use in rural schools, I shall refer chiefly to the former in the remainder of this paper. The facts presented, however, will suggest important conclusions concerning the value of activity analyses in devising rural school curricula.

The process of determining the various duties which teachers perform is often called activity or job analysis. As Doctor Charters has pointed out, the term has been taken over from the industrial field where the job is the unit of operation. When applied to education it includes " not only the manual operations but in addition the

activities, duties, problems, difficulties, and thoughts." As a method of curriculum construction it frankly assumes that at least one function of a curriculum is—

> to provide material for efficient performance, conduct, and behavior. The method of analysis is not new. The analyst who adopts the functional point of view in curriculum construction merely makes a wholehearted attempt to apply analysis thoroughly to the situation which he is studying.

Activity analysis should always be accompanied by trait analysis. It is not sufficient in building a curriculum to find out what people have to do and give them instruction in the performance of duties. Much depends upon traits of personality exhibited by the teacher, such as accuracy, neatness, courtesy, and firmness. As a matter of fact, causes of failure can often be traced to weaknesses in personality. It is of large importance, therefore, that a teacher-training institution pay direct, explicit, and persistent attention to the development of proper traits of personality. What has to be done is often not so important as how it is done, and the standards of performance are set by the personal traits and the characteristics of the worker.

There are various methods by which activity analyses may be made. A common method consists in engaging personally in teaching. One advantage which attaches to this method is that it provides immediate contact with the situation to be analyzed. A serious disadvantage is that the investigator often finds himself so engrossed in the performance of activities that he is unable to make accurate analyses of them. A second method involves direct observation of teaching. While this plan may prove very productive, it is obvious that a single observer would have to observe teaching in many communities over a long period of time in order to secure a reasonably complete picture of the various activities and conditions involved. A third method is to have teachers record in diary form all of the activities which they perform for a period of time in their capacity as teachers. A fourth method is that of personal interview and conference with workers and supervisory officials, which is time consuming and often fails to reveal accurate and complete data. A fifth method is to ascertain the major difficulties encountered in teaching in order to determine the most important duties and functions involved in it. This procedure is based on a questionable assumption, namely, that professional training can be based largely on the difficulties involved in teaching. A sixth method involves an analytical study of printed instructions or other literature relating to teaching activities. In view of the fact that no comprehensive study of the activities of rural teachers has been made through the use of any of these methods, they will not be discussed at greater length here.

The most elaborate study of teachers' activities and traits that has been made is the one undertaken by Doctor Charters in connection

with the teacher-training investigation in which he has engaged for the past three years under a grant from the Commonwealth Fund. In order to secure a relatively complete list of teachers' activities he used various methods. A summary was made first of the activities that had been mentioned in previous investigations. Brief lists of important activities were secured from many thousands of teachers of various types in widely different sections of the country. A digest was also made of references to activities in professional literature. The composite list secured from these sources was checked for completeness by many hundred teachers. New sources were consulted and the composite list checked by additional groups of teachers until no new additions could be found.

In order to clarify the picture presented by the several thousand activities which had been collected, classification was resorted to. As a result, they were arranged under the following seven divisions:

Activities involved in classroom instruction.
Activities involved in school and class management (exclusive of curricular activities).
Activities involving supervision of pupils' extra classroom activities (exclusive of activities involved in school and classroom management).
Activities involving relationships with personnel of school staff.
Activities involving relation with members of the school community.
Activities involved in personal and professional advancement.
Activities in connection with school plant and supplies.

As soon as these major divisions had been selected more detailed classifications were made as shown in the accompanying outline, which includes less than one-twelfth of the total list.

TABLE 1.[1]—*Classification of teachers' activities*

Division I.—Teachers' activities involved in classroom instruction.
Subdivision A.—Teaching subject matter.

A. Planning:
1. Selecting activities to be planned—
(*a*) Selecting objectives.
(*b*) Planning selection and organization of subject matter.
(*c*) Planning methods of developing interests.
(*d*) Planning methods of instruction.
(*e*) Planning methods of assigning work.
(*f*) Planning methods of providing sufficient opportunity for pupils' activities.
(*g*) Planning facilities for individual study.
(*h*) Planning methods of evaluating pupils' needs, abilities, and achievements.
(*i*) Planning methods of developing teachers' personal traits.

[1] Through courtesy of W. W. Charters.

A. Planning—Continued.
   2. Finding adequate time for planning.
   3. Finding sufficient methods of planning (e. g., working out methods, obtaining methods from others).
   4. Writing and recording plans (e. g., outlining plans, noting central points).
   5. Evaluating and revising plans (e. g., correcting plans after use, adjusting plans to results of tests).
   6. Filing and preserving plans.
   7. Utilizing plans (e. g., referring to plans while teaching).

B. Setting up objectives:
   1. Defining general objectives for the grade or subject (selecting appropriate aims of education).
   2. Defining specific objectives in harmony with general objectives (selecting desired outcome for the lesson or unit with reference to major objectives).
   3. Presenting, explaining, and illustrating objectives to pupils (e. g., discussing plans with teachers, getting pupils to adopt teachers' purposes).
   4. Evaluating objectives (e. g., deciding relative importance of specific objectives by consulting experts, by classroom experiments).
   5. Utilizing objectives (e. g., referring to objectives in selecting subject matter, in choosing methods, in planning procedures).

C. Selecting and organizing subject matter (subject matter includes information, pupil experiences, ideals, attitudes, skills, and learning activities):
   1. Securing adequate command of subject matter to be taught (e. g., preparing lessons, reading up on subject, securing adequate background).
   2. Taking account of specific objectives (e. g., selecting materials with reference to objectives).
   3. Taking account of pupils' interests, abilities, and needs—
      (*a*) Selecting subject matter with reference to pupils' interest (e. g., introducing discussions of school events, pupils' hobbies, topics suggested by pupils).
      (*b*) Selecting subject matter with reference to pupils' abilities (e. g., providing practice in skills needing development, recognizing individual abilities in selecting collateral reading).
      (*c*) Selecting subject matter with reference to pupils' needs (e. g., providing material useful to individuals concerned).
   4. Selecting proper materials for study (e. g., selecting self-teaching material, listing items for pupils to learn).
   5. Adapting materials to time limit (e. g., selecting material on the basis of time available).
   6. Determining difficulty of materials (e. g., refraining from the use of unfamiliar terms, determining the difficulty of each unit).

When the master list of activities had been completed a study was made of the significance of each to different types of teachers. It will be helpful at this point to refer to Table 2, which gives the decile ratings of the activities for kindergarten-primary teachers and one-room rural teachers of Wisconsin. The complete list of activities was sent to rural teachers of Wisconsin, as well as to many other types of teachers, with the request that they supply information

concerning the frequency, difficulty, and importance of each activity; also whether it should be learned in a professional school or on the job. Through the use of a system of values which was employed, it was possible to determine decile ratings for the different activities. As represented in the table, the lowest rankings have the highest value. Thus activity A, 1, *a*, occurs much more frequently among kindergarten-primary teachers than among rural teachers. By combining the numerical values for the items in the first four columns it was possible to determine composite rankings, as indicated in the fifth column of the table. The number of rural teachers supplying information was more than 50. It was discovered by statistical methods that the correlation between the judgments of 25 teachers and of all the rural teachers who responded was 0.93. This indicates that the judgments of 25 teachers are adequate for practical purposes. However, the teachers' rankings were supplemented by judgments from supervisors, principals, and professors of education, which agreed very closely with those of the classroom teachers.

TABLE 2.[1]—*Decile ratings of kindergarten-primary teachers and Wisconsin one-room rural school-teachers*

Division I.—Teachers' activities involved in classroom instruction.
Subdivision A.—Teaching subject matter.

Activity	Frequency		Difficulty		Importance		School		Composite	
	K.-p.[2]	Rural	K.-p.	Rural	K.-p.	Rural	K.-p.	Rural	K.-p.	Rural
A. 1 (*a*)	2	5	5	3	1	2	1	1	1	1
(*b*)	2	1	5	3	2	1	1	1	1	1
(*c*)	1	1	3	2	1	1	1	2	1	1
(*d*)	1	1	5	2	1	2	1	1	1	1
(*e*)	1	1	1	5	1	3	1	1	1	1
(*f*)	1	5	1	1	1	4	1	3	1	1
(*g*)	5	5	1	1	5	7	1	6	1	3
(*h*)	3	5	1	1	1	6	1	2	1	1
(*i*)	7	7	1	1	8	10	8	3	6	6
2	4	4	3	2	7	6	10	10	6	4
3	4	4	6	1	6	8	9	2	6	2
4	2	1	5	7	8	7	9	3	5	3
5	6	7	5	2	10	8	8	7	7	5
6	7	7	10	9	10	10	10	10	10	10
7	3	4	10	10	5	7	10	7	6	5
B. 1	7	6	1	2	2	4	1	1	1	2
2	3	7	1	3	3	7	3	1	2	4
3	6	6	1	3	6	7	5	1	3	3
4	7	7	1	6	6	9	2	1	2	6
5	5	6	2	4	2	5	3	1	2	2
C. 1	2	1	6	6	1	1	2	2	1	1
2	2	5	3	2	3	5	1	1	1	1
3 (*a*)	1	2	6	5	1	5	9	9	2	4
(*b*)	1	3	2	2	1	5	2	7	1	2
(*c*)	1	1	5	2	1	2	1	6	1	2
4	4	2	1	3	6	7	3	4	2	2
5	4	5	2	1	8	6	10	7	7	3
6	1	1	5	3	5	8	10	4	4	2
7	3	3	3	5	3	4	4	1	2	2
8	7	4	4	2	4	7	3	1	5	1
9	6	5	2	2	7	9	3	3	4	3
10	5	6	1	1	8	7	10	8	6	4
D. 1	1	4	8	5	1	5	10	10	4	6
2	1	2	8	4	1	4	9	8	3	3
3	4	4	6	4	6	7	4	4	4	4
4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
E. 1	1	4	4	1	1	4	2	2	1	1
2	1	1	8	9	3	4	7	8	3	3
3	3	4	4	5	5	4	3	2	2	2

[1] Through courtesy of W. W. Charters.

[2] Kindergarten-primary teachers.

A critical study of the entries in the table reveal some very significant facts. For example, some activities rank very high in frequency, difficulty, and importance for rural teachers, such as A, 1, *c* (planning method of assigning work); others rank relatively low, such as A, 6 (filing and preserving plans); still others differ widely in rank as to frequency, difficulty, and importance, such as A, 4 (writing and recording plans). In this connection the fact should be noted that the frequency with which an activity occurs is not always an accurate measure of its difficulty or importance. It is also interesting to note that the difficulty encountered in learning to perform an activity is not always a clear index as to whether it can be learned best in a professional school or on the job.

Equally significant facts are revealed when the rankings for kindergarten-primary and rural teachers are compared. For example, the rankings correspond closely in the case of some activities, such as D, 4 (using interesting methods of instruction) and A, 2 (finding adequate time for planning). In the case of other activities the rankings differ widely, as shown by the entries for A, 3 (finding sufficient methods of planning) and B, 2 (defining specific objectives in harmony with general objectives). If the judgments on which these rankings are based are valid, some activities merit far greater emphasis than others in courses for rural teachers. It also appears that some activities can be learned best in professional institutions and others can be learned best on the job. Furthermore, some activities which merit vigorous emphasis in courses for one type of teacher require but little emphasis in courses for other types of teachers.

The discussion thus far supplies clear evidence that an analysis of the activities in which teachers engage may prove very suggestive to the curriculum builder. With this general fact in mind, we shall direct attention next to the procedures which may be followed in utilizing the results of an activity analysis, such as Charters has provided. An extreme view is that it should be made the sole basis of deriving curricular materials. The specific steps involved are (1) to evaluate activities of teachers in the light of the social objectives of rural schools, (2) to discover the difficulties and problems that are involved, (3) to select suitable materials from teachers' texts, professional journals, and other sources which present solutions for the difficulties and the principles involved, (4) to examine standard texts in such fields as principles of education, principles of teaching, principles of school organization and management, and the like, and to select whatever topics are needed to introduce, supplement, or interrelate the different units, and (5) to organize the total body of material for teaching purposes. This procedure has never been exemplified in any thoroughgoing way, and we do not know how adequate it

would prove. Professional literature includes many theoretical discussions of the advantages and limitations of this procedure, into which we need not go at this time. Experience has taught, however, that it would require far more work than could be expected of any curriculum builder who faces the problem of constructing a curriculum for immediate use.

A second procedure, which has far greater immediate possibilities, is to use the activity list in checking the content of existing courses which are the product of experience, experimentation, and deduction. If the Charters list is used it is possible to determine the extent to which provision has been made for each of the essential activities in which teachers engage. When applied for this purpose to a series of elementary courses in education which we are developing at the University of Chicago, many serious omissions were discovered, such as those relating to teachers' extra-classroom and community relations. Inasmuch as the list distinguishes between the frequency and importance of activities for different groups of teachers, it aids the curriculum builder in determining the probable amount of emphasis which should be given to a specific activity for rural teachers or kindergarten-primary teachers. Furthermore, it suggests whether a given activity can be learned best in training or on the job. Not infrequently the activity list suggests situations which have never been provided for in professional courses. In such cases the use of the list suggests the need of research in particular fields.

One of the most valuable uses which we have made of the activity list in improving the content and organization of professional courses was undertaken quite recently. Stenographic reports were secured of class discussion in three elementary courses in education. These reports are being analyzed in detail to determine the extent to which given activities are emphasized and the degree of emphasis which they received. If an activity is merely mentioned this fact is indicated by the numeral 1; if it is discussed sufficiently to make its nature clear, it is marked 2; if the difficulties encountered in performing the activity are discussed, it is marked 3; if procedures for meeting these difficulties are described, the activity is marked 4; and if the principles underlying the procedures are presented, the activity is marked 5. When a course is analyzed in these terms there are often very startling revelations. For example, one instructor carries his discussion of activities only far enough to describe or outline them; another instructor spends several days on an activity which merits very little emphasis. The analysis also shows that some instructors present the courses almost wholly in terms of principles with few applications to specific cases, while other instructors describe activities, difficulties, and practical pro-

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cedures at length but fail to develop the principles on which the solution of classroom problems depends. It is evident, therefore, that when existing professional courses are analyzed carefully through the use of the activity list, some of the most vital problems which curriculum builders face come squarely to light. If these problems are intelligently solved, radical improvements result both in the content of professional courses and in methods of teaching them.

In conclusion the following comments should be made. Experience has demonstrated clearly that a comprehensive analysis of teachers' activities, such as Charters has prepared, can be made best when ample funds and the cooperation of a large number of people are available. After the basic analysis has been made it may be improved and refined through the efforts of individuals who work on small units or restricted phases of the complex task of teaching. It is true, however, that a comprehensive analysis could eventually be built up through the effort of individuals working on small phases of the problem. Similar statements may be made concerning activity analyses which are made to aid in determining the content of public-school curricula. Since the activities of the layman are more numerous and have wider ramifications than the professional activities of a teacher, a tremendous amount of time and energy will be required to make analyses which may be used effectively in constructing school curricula. The complexity of the task, however, supplies evidence of its urgent need. Once an analysis has been completed, we have definite assurance that it may serve as a valuable aid in checking the completeness and adequacy of existing curricula. Before we can determine the extent to which curricula may be based solely on activity analyses much experimentation is necessary. In the meantime it seems advisable to utilize race experience, checked by experimentation and classroom experience, as the fundamental basis in determining the content of school curricula.

ANALYSIS OF DUTIES PERTAINING TO THE JOB OF TEACHING IN THE ONE-ROOM SCHOOL

By VERNE MCGUFFEY

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Four years ago the president of one of our larger State teachers colleges said to me that there is no rural-teacher problem; that if a teacher is prepared to teach a grade in town she is just as well prepared to teach a one-room school. I did not believe his statement then nor do I believe it now, but I could not then prove that the job

of the teacher in the one-room school is different from that of the grade teacher in town. To-day I believe that I can show important differences in the jobs that warrant differences in training if the prospective teacher is to be adequately prepared.

For the past two years I have been carrying on a study, using the general technic of job analysis to show in what ways, if any, the job of the teacher in the one-room school differs from that of the grade teacher in other types of schools.

Two years ago about this time certain teachers in one-room schools kept for me a diary of their activities for a period of a month or more. Last year 80 graduate students, each of whom had had experience in both types of schools, listed for me all the ways in which they believed the job of the teacher in the one-room school differs from that of other teachers. County superintendents from 13 different States listed for me their best and their poorest teachers, with reasons for superiority and inferiority. I was permitted to examine Charters's material showing the activities of all teachers. A number of experts in rural education and in teacher training gave me their opinions as to the particular problems of the teacher in the one-room school. On the basis of the foregoing I made a check list of 112 duties and responsibilities which seem to differentiate the job of the one-room teacher from that of the grade teacher in other situations.

That check list was submitted to numbers of teachers in one-room schools in 19 States and to grade teachers in towns in 5 States. The towns vary in size from 800 to 75,000 population. Returns have been tabulated from 300 teachers in one-room schools and from 150 teachers in grade schools.

The list before you (mimeographed copies for distribution) shows the per cent of teachers in one-room schools compared with the per cent of teachers in grade schools who say that they actually do perform the activities or assume the responsibilities indicated. If we neglect item 67, we find that 25 per cent or more of the teachers in the one-room schools perform 99 of the remaining 111 items, 33 per cent or more perform 77 items, and 50 per cent or more perform 52 items. On the other hand, only 5 items are performed by 25 per cent or more of the grade teachers and only 18 items are performed by 16 per cent or more.

The differences are marked and are statistically valid, since they are far beyond the amount required to allow for probable errors of sampling. On 110 items the per cent of the one-room teachers who perform the duties or assume the responsibilities listed is at least twice as great as the per cent of the grade teachers who do those same things. It may be shown also that the difference on each of

the 110 items is not less than six times the standard deviation of the difference when three times the standard deviation is sufficient to establish the significance of the difference.

My data show, therefore, a statistically valid difference between the job of the teacher in the one-room school and that of the grade teacher in the town or city. Many of the responsibilities listed as specialized duties of rural teachers are somewhat indefinite and may need further refinement before they can be of greatest value in curriculum construction, but the same or similar technic will furnish that refinement to whatever degree is found necessary. It may be that some of the items listed which are performed by many one-room teachers ought not be done or ought to be done differently, but that is a problem for the makers of curricula. It seems likely that 80 or more of the items listed will be found essential to the job and should be incorporated in the curricula of the prospective rural teacher. Additional tabulation and statistical treatment of the data will show whether or not any of the items listed are the result of local conditions.

Beside the simple answer, "do" or "do not" our check list provides for expression of opinion as to the importance and difficulty of each item and for an expression of attitude toward the job. That, in connection with the opinions of county superintendents as to reasons for success and failure, seems to point very definitely to a conclusion that many of us have held without much proof, namely, that the success of the teacher depends more on her attitude toward the job than on any other one factor. Time does not permit me to submit my data in this direction, but if my conclusion proves correct we shall have another and most important reason for differentiation in the training of teachers. For it is only by specific and specialized training that we can hope to build up desirable specific enthusiasm and attitudes.

TABLE 3.—*Percentages of one-room teachers who assume the following responsibilities compared with the percentages of grade teachers in towns and cities who assume the same responsibilities*

Duties	Per cent of one-room teachers	Per cent of grade teachers
ACTIVITIES OFTEN PERFORMED BY SUPERVISOR OR ADMINISTRATOR		
1. Meet with school board	39	1
2. Advise school board as to needs of school	83	2
3. Advise the board as to school law	25	1
4. Determine holidays and vacations	31	1
5. Order school supplies	61	5
6. Purchase school supplies	34	1
7. Act as purchasing agent for pupils	32	1
8. Receive and audit school supplies	51	1
9. Make final decisions in case of discipline	62	6
10. Administer all punishment	62	7
11. Make final decision in cases of classification and promotion	61	12

TABLE 3.—*Percentages of one-room teachers who assume the following responsibilities compared with the percentages of grade teachers in towns and cities who assume the same responsibilities*—Continued

Duties	Per cent of one-room teachers	Per cent of grade teachers
ACTIVITIES OFTEN PERFORMED BY SUPERVISOR OR ADMINISTRATOR—continued		
12. Take responsibility for enforcement of compulsory attendance law	33	1
13. Take responsibility for enforcement of health and quarantine laws	25	1
14. Keep school census records	27	1
15. Keep clerical records of school board	16	0
16. Collect and account for school funds	12	0
17. Investigate absences	70	23
18. Make curriculum for the school	37	2
19. Establish friendly personal relations with all patrons of the school	71	25
20. Provide publicity for the school	48	1
21. Formulate plans for educational advancement of community	28	1
22. Direct campaigns for improvement of school	43	1
ACTIVITIES INVOLVED IN INSTRUCTION OF CLASSES		
23. Plan and execute work with little or no supervision	62	6
24. Adjust program to accommodate several grades	80	3
25. Adjust teaching technique to suit small classes	65	7
26. Keep several groups profitably busy while one is reciting	71	12
27. Present subject matter in short periods	67	9
28. Adapt textbooks and printed course of study to fit out-of-school knowledge of farm children	45	8
29. Select materials of instruction from life of farm community	55	12
30. Organize the school in harmony with the life of the farm community	51	1
31. Teach music	50	23
32. Teach art	57	25
33. Teach agriculture	53	0
34. Teach home economics	26	0
35. Provide for socializing children from isolated homes	39	3
36. Make a great part of material used for instruction	45	0
37. Adapt health work so it will function in the peculiar sanitary and economic conditions of the community	57	3
38. Teach social science so it will function in the rural community	30	1
39. Teach all subjects in all grades	67	1
SCHOOL ACTIVITIES BUT NOT TEACHING CLASSES		
40. Supervise playground activities of all grades and both sexes	71	17
41. Coach athletic teams	33	6
42. Coach dramatics	36	1
43. Prepare pupils for contests	66	16
44. Plan and manage entertainments to raise money to buy school supplies	63	4
45. Serve as school librarian	60	4
46. Keep all school records	71	6
47. Make all school reports for school	78	11
48. Give standard tests and measures	42	20
49. Score standard tests and measures	41	11
50. Make decisions on basis of tests and measures	32	2
51. Prepare and serve hot lunch	24	0
52. Provide material for first aid	46	6
53. Administer first aid	72	24
54. Care for children in emergencies due to bad weather	70	24
55. Care for children in emergencies due to sudden illness	66	22
56. Conduct arbor-day exercises	60	6
57. Conduct opening exercises profitable to all grades at the same time	64	1
58. Prepare school exhibits and transport them to the county seat	31	9
59. Transport pupils to various centers for contests	36	1
60. Know well the home life of each child in the school	61	9
61. Administer dental and other clinics during school hours	22	4
ACTIVITIES INVOLVED IN PERSONAL RELATIONS		
62. Live in a teacherage alone	25	0
63. Live in a home without modern conveniences	47	4
64. Share room with other persons	40	20
65. Assist with housework at boarding place	36	6
66. Depend on landlord or neighbors for transportation	30	20
67. Walk less than a mile to school	31	65
68. Walk 1 mile but less than 2 miles to school	17	2
69. Walk 2 miles or more to school	17	1
70. Ride or drive a horse to school	24	1
71. Drive a car to school	25	5
72. Become a social leader for a group of young people	31	4
73. Become acquainted with and visit parents	70	26
74. Establish friendly relations with school officials	73	21
75. Find suitable recreation for self in community	63	28

TABLE 3.—*Percentages of one-room teachers who assume the following responsibilities compared with the percentages of grade teachers in towns and cities who assume the same responsibilities*—Continued

Duties	Per cent of one-room teachers	Per cent of grade teachers
ACTIVITIES INVOLVED IN PERSONAL RELATIONS—continued		
76. Possess knowledge concerning all vocations of the community sufficient to be interested in its activities	53	0
77. Possess sufficient skill in many activities so that one may engage in the duties of homes visited	45	0
78. Possess ability to do housework, including laundry, cooking, and sewing	65	35
ACTIVITIES INVOLVING COMMUNITY RELATIONS		
79. Serve as source of information for individuals of the community	47	3
80. Initiate action looking toward enforcing legal rights of children and defectives	39	1
81. Assume active leadership in movements for improvement of community health	37	2
82. Assume active leadership in movement for improvement of recreational facilities of community	31	2
83. Assume active leadership in movements for improvement of economic conditions in community (cooperative marketing, etc.)	21	0
84. Assume leadership in community organizations	28	3
85. Plan and conduct institutes and short courses for improvement of adults	13	0
86. Assume leadership in social activities, parties, etc	30	5
87. Serve as superintendent of Sunday school	16	0
88. Teach Sunday-school class	35	5
89. Attend church and Sunday school	70	35
90. Sing in church choir	36	5
91. Attend "ladies' aid"	24	3
92. Become a member of community clubs	34	9
93. Conduct entertainments for community	60	2
94. Assume responsibility for behavior of audience at entertainments in the schoolhouse	55	12
95. Make public talks or addresses	37	4
ACTIVITIES CONCERNING BUILDING AND GROUNDS		
96. Do all janitor work	60	0
97. Find some one to do the janitor work	20	1
98. Employ a janitor	19	1
99. Supervise a janitor	32	2
100. Care for grounds	57	3
101. Supervise care of grounds	42	1
102. Assume full responsibility for sanitary condition of building and grounds	59	0
103. Actively oversee school toilets	77	1
104. Oversee source of drinking water	75	0
105. Make repairs	20	0
106. Supervise repairs	32	0
107. Regulate temperature and ventilation	79	16
108. Keep fire in stove or furnace	65	0
109. Start fires in mornings	50	0
110. Supervise building and keeping of fires	54	0
111. Protect school building against tramps and other marauders	39	0
112. Bring drinking water to the schoolhouse	21	0

NATURE AND EXTENT OF CURRICULUM DIFFERENTIATION IN THE TRAINING OF RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS

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I shall discuss the problem reflected in the title of this paper chiefly from the point of view of a relatively stable teaching population.

Teachers who enter the public-school service in the larger cities now remain in the service for an average of from 10 to 15 years or even longer. The average length of service has increased markedly during the past decade, and this means that larger and larger num-

bers of teachers are making teaching a life work. In the rural schools the teaching personnel is still transient and unstable. In some States the proportion of beginners in the rural schools is as high as 30 or 40 per cent, and the annual "turnover" in the one-teacher schools is more than 50 per cent.

I believe that it will be only a matter of time, however, before the stability and relative permanence now increasingly characteristic of the urban teaching population will extend to the rural schools. There is already evidence that the consolidation of the smaller school units in the open country markedly increases the average length of the teacher's service and greatly reduces the annual turnover. Even in those districts where the smaller units are likely to persist the average period of service will probably be extended, if only because the longer service of the city teachers reduces the number of city vacancies to which the rural teachers can go. It has also been demonstrated that special training for and supervision of one-teacher schools tend to lengthen the period of service for the teachers in one-teacher schools. Beyond this, of course, there is the possibility—I hope the probability—that enlightened policies of State school administration will insure substantial salary bonuses for those who serve in the more remote and isolated schools.

Assuming, then, that a State teacher-training program should anticipate relative stability in the rural-school teaching personnel, the question at issue is this: What special provisions, if any, should be made in the normal schools and teachers colleges for the training of rural-school teachers? Or, more specifically, is it desirable to offer in our professional schools for teachers curricula that are expressly designed to fit students for the rural-school service?

I shall reverse the usual procedure and state first what I conceive to be the most convincing arguments against such differentiation; then I shall examine the evidence on the other side and attempt to reach some reasonable conclusions.

Against a pronounced degree of differentiation stands the indubitable fact that the cleavages between rural America and urban America are already far too numerous and that an educational program which would tend to sharpen these cleavages would be shortsighted public policy. It is primarily for this reason that separate professional schools for rural-school teachers—county normal schools and high-school training classes—should be looked upon merely as temporary expedients, and that a policy of separate State normal schools for rural teachers would be unwise. The preparation of teachers for the public-school service is a unit function precisely because the most important task of the common school is to integrate the diverse elements that make up our population.

If we accept this as the fundamental purpose of elementary education, it follows that the basic materials or subjects of study will not differ essentially for different occupational, sectional, or economic groups. The basis of common culture which the elementary school provides is the bedrock of our national unity. To argue that the rural child needs one kind of basic culture and the urban child a quite different kind is to condone the cleavages and compound the misunderstandings that now prevail.

Probably there are few people to-day who would advocate a specialized program of elementary instruction for rural children. This was not the case, however, even as late as 9 or 10 years ago. At the midwinter meeting of 1919 I spoke in this same vein and was immediately taken to task by one of the leaders of American education. The rural child, he asserted, should be given the kind of training that will make him content to remain on the farm. The type of education that the schools were providing, he maintained, fitted children for urban life and not for rural life, and as a result the country districts were being depopulated and the cities were growing much faster than was good for them. "Keep the country boys and girls on the farm" was his slogan. We are in a position to-day to see how dangerous some very plausible slogans may be. I am told by competent authorities that, with all of the cityward migration of the rural folk there are still some 200,000 more farmers in the country than are necessary to supply us with foodstuffs, and that the low average income of rural America as compared with urban America is due in part to this excess of the farming population.

It would seem, then, that the population movement toward the urban centers is likely to continue for some time to come, and it is possible that, with further advances in the application of power-driven machinery to agriculture, the movement may even be accelerated. In any event, we may be morally certain that many of the boys and girls now enrolled in the rural schools will spend their adult lives in the towns and cities and in occupations other than farming. This constitutes in itself a very good reason for not sharply differentiating their basic education from that which their later neighbors and fellow workers will have.

From all of these considerations, a marked differentiation in the preparation of rural elementary teachers would seem to be unwise, and it would also seem most advantageous to prepare prospective rural teachers and prospective urban teachers in the same professional school, having them live a common institutional life, and participate for a part of the time, at least, in the same courses and the same classes.

Passing now to the other side of the picture, it is beyond dispute that the task of the rural teacher is in many ways quite different

from that of the urban teacher. It is true that the aims and objectives of elementary education are not at all different as between rural and urban schools, and it is true that the basic subjects of study should be the same. On the other hand, there will be different emphases in certain subjects, particularly for compensating in some measure the children of each group for the cultural advantages which the environment of the other group provides. It was once generally held that the rural curriculum should lay great emphasis on the practical arts. To-day the notion is growing that, while the practical arts should not be neglected, it is the fine arts that should receive the larger emphasis in the rural elementary school. Then, too, there are specific problems of health education that are of greater significance to rural children than to city children.

Students of education are generally agreed that the process of teaching should consider first of all the background of experience from which the pupil approaches the learning task. Generally speaking, the most successful teacher is he who can capitalize the experiences of his pupils in the interest of their further growth—the one who, on the basis of what his pupils already know, can lead them on to broader knowledge and more penetrating insights. Even the skills with which all children must be equipped—such skills as reading, writing, spelling, and manipulation of numbers—can undoubtedly be more readily learned if they are closely associated with problems and needs that grow out of the pupil's own life and experience. Because the rural child's experiences differ radically from the experiences of the city child, certain phases of teaching process must differ if the best results are to be obtained.

Especially should the rural-school teacher be able to capitalize in the interests of education the rich natural environment of the rural child. While I should be the last to indorse a narrow program of rural elementary education expressly designed to "keep the country children on the farm," this is far from saying that I would not take every opportunity to develop a keen appreciation of life in the open country, an understanding of nature and of nature's laws, and a sincere respect for the basic work of farming.

In the preparation of rural-school teachers, then, there is certainly a place for such specialized courses as are necessary to meet these needs. At the very least, I am sure, provision should be made for a study of the natural environment of the rural child and of the scientific principles and social appreciations underlying the basic processes of agriculture. This should be in addition to the fundamental course in biology which is coming to be regarded as essential in all teacher-training curricula, and in addition, also, to a fundamental course in physical science which I hope may be regarded as essential just as soon as our training programs are extended.

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It is believed by leaders in rural education that most of the other specialized needs referred to can be met by one substantial course in rural education, together with the courses in observation, participation, and responsible student teaching, some of which should be differentiated for prospective rural teachers, with a goodly portion of the responsible student teaching done in the rural training centers.

We come, finally, to the community responsibilities of the rural-school teacher. Not only are these usually heavier than those of the urban teacher, but they differ essentially in kind. The rural-school teacher not only has opportunities to participate in the social life of the community, but such participation is commonly expected. With the lengthening of the period of service to which we may confidently look forward, there will be opportunities for a larger measure of community leadership on the part of the teacher, especially in those phases of community life that are closely connected with the school. It would seem most important, then, for the professional school to prepare the prospective rural teacher to make the most of these opportunities.

I do not intend to suggest by this that the rural-school teacher should be a propagandist for general social reforms or a protagonist of this, that, or the other "uplift" movement. The teacher's primary concern is the work of the school and the welfare and progress of its pupils. This is a thoroughly legitimate concern, really an essential part of his trust as a teacher. To work for better schools and better conditions of school work is one of his duties. In the cities this duty falls chiefly upon the administrative officers of the school system, but in the country it is a duty that each teacher should be in a position to discharge. To this end, it would seem desirable to have a specialized course in rural sociology and economics, setting forth among other things the difficulties that the rural school confronts and the various ways in which these difficulties may be overcome, and helping the teacher to see the rural school against its social and economic background. Whatever leadership in promoting rural-school betterment the teacher may be able to assert should obviously be as thoroughly informed and as well balanced as possible and a course in rural sociology and economics should do much to insure this end.

The suggestions that I have made for the differentiated training of rural-school teachers would involve: (1) A substantial course in nature-study agriculture; (2) specialized courses in observation, participation, and responsible student teaching in rural schools and under rural-school conditions; (3) a substantial course in rural education which will deal particularly with the different emphases and the different methods of approach which rural teaching demands as contrasted with urban teaching; and (4) a course in rural sociol-

ogy and economics. All in all, these would not account for more than one-third of a two-year program, leaving at least two-thirds to be made up of work common to other curricula. This does not seem to be an excessive proportion of specialized work if one keeps in mind not only the specialized difficulties but the very great importance of the rural-school service.

THE RURAL CURRICULUM AS JUDGED BY GRADUATES

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The popular conception that students choose the rural curriculum because the competition in other curricula is too strenuous is not supported by data collected during the past year by the United States Bureau of Education. For the purposes of this study the names and addresses of over 500 students who had completed the two-year rural elementary school curriculum during the five-year period ending June, 1926, were secured from 13 State normal schools and teachers' colleges located in seven widely scattered States. The responses of these students to a questionnaire furnish the data and information given in this report.

One hundred and forty-nine replied, giving one or more of the following reasons:

TABLE 1.—*Chief reasons for choosing the two-year rural elementary school curriculum*

	Number of times given	Per cent of total
1. Interest in and love for rural life and people	62	30
2. Familiarity with rural life and rural schools	37	18
3. Opportunity for service	34	16
4. Preference for teaching in a small or rural school	19	9
5. Training for or experience with all grades	18	9
6. Opportunity for self-development and for advancement	11	5
7. Influence of others	9	4
8. Most convenient curriculum (shortest, most easily fitted into other curricula)	7	4
9. Fewer restrictions in rural schools (from supervisors, superintendents, etc.)	5	2
10. More rural school openings or for some particular rural school opening	4	2
11. Limited outlook on life	1	½
12. Remain longer with same children	1	½

It will be observed by referring to Table 1 that (item 1) "Interest in and love for rural people and life" and (item 3) "Opportunity for service," both of which are altruistic in nature, were given as reasons for choosing the rural curriculum nearly as often as all other reasons combined. (Item 6) The opportunity for self-development and for professional advancement, (item 5) the training for teaching in any or all grades afforded by the rural curricula and experience

for any or all grades afforded by teaching in the rural one-room school, and (item 10) the comparative ease of obtaining rural school positions, are more or less personal reasons which motivated 16 per cent of the students in their choice of the rural curriculum. (Item 7) "Influence of others" is almost a negligible factor.

One hundred and thirteen replied, giving one or more of the following reasons:

TABLE 2.—*Reasons given for choosing the rural curriculum again*

	Number of times given	Per cent of total
1. Interest in and love for rural life and people	34	23
2. Opportunity for service	25	17
3. Enjoy teaching in rural schools	16	11
4. Interest in rural schools and rural education	16	11
5. Familiarity with rural life and rural schools	14	9
6. Gives experience with all grades	13	8
7. Opportunity for self-development and advancement	9	6
8. Fewer restrictions in rural schools (from superintendents, supervisors, etc.)	7	5
9. Enjoy the contacts with parents and community	7	5
10. Do not lose identity as in big city system	2	1
11. Most convenient curriculum (shortest, most easily fitted into others, etc.)	2	1
12. Influence of some one person	2	1
13. Better salaries are being paid	1	1
14. Wages are lower, expenses lower, work more pleasant	1	1

Of the 151 replying to the question, Would you choose the same curriculum again were you entering the normal school? 113, or 75 per cent, replied in the affirmative. A glance at Table 2 shows that practically the same reasons were given for this continued favor as were given in the first instance.

Thirty-eight replied, giving one or more of the following reasons:

TABLE 3.—*Reasons given for not desiring to choose the rural curriculum again*

	Number of times given	Per cent of total
1. Prefer to teach specific subjects or specific grades or find it difficult to teach so many grades and so many subjects	17	32
2. Graduates of rural curricula enjoy less prestige	9	17
3. Low salaries	7	13
4. Limited equipment and unpleasant schoolrooms	5	9
5. Do not enjoy rural life	4	8
6. Not enough opportunity for advancement	4	8
7. Not sufficient appreciation for all that is expected	2	3
8. Lack of companionship	1	2
9. Parents try to run school	1	2
10. School board uneducated	1	2
11. Too much of the rural curriculum under one instructor	1	2
12. Trained teachers not given preference in rural schools	1	2

More than half of the remaining 25 per cent stated that they would not again choose the rural curriculum because they preferred to teach specific subjects or specific grades, since they found it difficult and trying to teach so many grades and so many subjects (item 1);

they felt that graduates of the rural curriculum enjoyed less prestige in the teaching profession (item 2); or they found the salaries too low. The overestimated and often quoted reasons (item 5), "Do not enjoy rural life"; (item 6) "Not enough opportunities for advancement"; (item 8), "Lack of companionship"; and (item 10) "School board uneducated," constitute a very small percentage of the statements made by these experienced teachers against choosing the rural curriculum were they again entering the normal school for the first time.

Eighty-seven replied, giving one or more of the following reasons:

TABLE 4.—*Chief reasons for choosing curricula other than the rural*

	Number of times given	Per cent of total
1. Preference for children of certain age groups	55	57
2. Subject matter in upper grades more stimulating	20	21
3. Personality best suited to pupils of certain age groups	7	7
4. More opportunity for advancement	7	7
5. Intermediate curriculum offered best preparation for any grade	2	2
6. Took intermediate because weak in music	2	2
7. Best salary for length of training	2	2
8. Curriculum fitted most easily into degree curriculum	1	1
9. Because of past experience	1	1

Replies to the same questionnaire by graduates of nonrural elementary curricula, from the same group of normal schools, who entered one-teacher rural schools upon graduation, were secured for comparative purposes. These data are given in Tables 4, 5, and 6.

Seventy-one replied.

TABLE 5.—*Reasons given for choosing the same curriculum again*

	Number of times given	Per cent of total
1. Enjoy the work or feel they are successful	22	31
2. The remaining reasons given were almost exactly the same as those given for the original choice of curriculum with practically the same frequency distribution	49	69

Sixteen replied, giving one or more of the following reasons:

TABLE 6.—*Reasons given for not desiring to choose the same curriculum again*

	Number of times given	Per cent of total
1. Developed a preference for some other grade or for more specialized work	14	82
2. Difficult to get position	1	6
3. Too many primary teachers	1	6
4. Preferred teaching in rural school	1	6

Of the 87 replying to the question as to whether or not they would again choose the same curriculum, 71, or 82 per cent, replied in the affirmative. It is interesting to contrast the reasons for choosing the nonrural curricula (Table 4), rechoosing the same curricula (Table 5), or choosing some other curricula (Table 6) with similar items for the rural curriculum group. Preference for children or subject matter of certain age levels was the determining factor in the great majority of cases. The varied human interest elements so prominent in the rural curriculum group are almost entirely lacking. The fact that 82 per cent of the nonrural group would choose the same curricula again may in part be accounted for by the fact that fewer personal factors enter into the decision. To change from an intermediate to an upper-grade position seldom involves more than professional reasons, whereas the decision to change from a rural to any other teaching position may be influenced by personal and social as well as professional factors. Obviously, the more there is at stake the more likelihood of desire to change.

TABLE 7.—*Suggestions for improving observation work*

Suggestions	Number of times given	Per cent of total
1. Follow up the observation period by class discussions, conferences with the teachers, reports, tests, etc	11	20
2. More observation work	10	18
3. Give direction to observation by discussion before the class period	9	16
4. Observe more grades and more schools	9	16
5. Observe better teachers	6	11
6. Fewer in observation group	4	7
7. Eliminate some subjects, add others	2	4
8. Approximate more nearly actual classroom conditions	1	2
9. Begin observation in first semester	1	2
10. Have student teachers, not supervisors, find problems	1	2

TABLE 8.—*Suggestions for improving practice teaching*

Suggestions	Number of times given	Per cent of total
1. Give student teachers more responsibility	19	22
2. More supervision and more conferences with critic teachers and supervisors	18	20
3. More practice teaching	8	9
4. Opportunity to meet parents and know home environment	8	9
5. Better type of school, teacher, pupils, discipline, library, equipment, etc	8	9
6. Teach more subjects and more types of schools	6	7
7. Longer practice teaching periods or lessons	6	7
8. Program too crowded, not enough time for plans	4	5
9. Make observations during practice teaching period	3	3
10. Do unit of teaching, use State monographs, make more definite plans	3	3
11. Do only practice teaching during weeks it is given	2	2
12. Adjust to practice teaching gradually	2	2
13. More pupils in class	1	1
14. Do practice teaching in the spring in order to permit playground activity	1	1

Tables 7 and 8 contain suggestions for improving the observation and practice teaching offered by the graduates of the rural elementary-school curricula. The suggestions indicate that the experience

of the graduates has led them to consider the observation and practice teaching more vital and important than the teachers' colleges have seemed to do. They would increase the amount of both; they would intensify both by increasing the amount of supervision, by giving greater direction to the observation periods, by holding conferences preceding them; by having more detailed follow-up work by means of reports, class discussions, and individual conferences.

Moreover, of the 55 replying, 49, or 90 per cent, would have the observation and practice work done in rural schools in spite of whatever extra time, effort, or expense may be involved.

We are often asked Do the graduates of two-year curricula teach in rural schools? Our data show that out of a total of 307 teaching years since their graduation from the curricula, 49 per cent of the time was spent in one-teacher schools; 7½ per cent in two-teacher schools; 7½ per cent in three-teacher or larger schools in the open country; 13 per cent in village schools, and 12 per cent in city schools; whereas the graduates of nonrural two-year curricula who entered one-teacher rural schools upon graduation spent but 35 per cent of their total teaching time in one and two teacher schools.

THE FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES OF A TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTION WITH ITS GRADUATES IN RURAL SCHOOLS

By E. C. Higbie

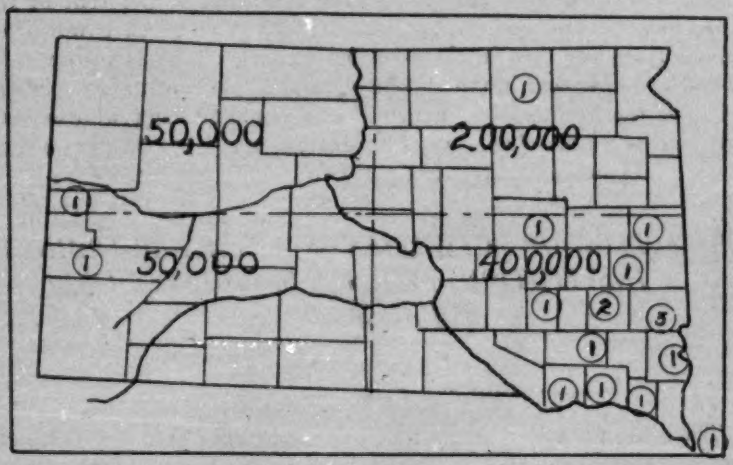
President Eastern State Teachers College, Madison, S. Dak.

The idea of a follow-up system, together with a plan for its operation, as developed by the Eastern State Teachers' College, South Dakota, has grown directly out of two or three specific problems. It has not been a theoretically thought-out addition to the work of our institution except as it may have been seen to be needed in fulfilling a general ideal of localized service.[1] The specific problem that brought it into operation was a call from a superintendent to the effect that one of our graduates in his school was failing in her work. In response to his call we immediately sent a supervisor to the school in question, with instructions to stay with the situation for two or three days, if necessary, and either help the girl to solve her problems or induce her to resign to make it possible for us to nominate another candidate for the position. The supervisor remained at the school for two days and temporarily solved the difficulties. On her return the whole procedure was talked over very fully, and the organization of a system of field service resulted.

[1] See "The Plan, Function, and Organization of the Teachers' College," *School and Society*, Feb. 9, 1924, p. 163.

A contributing cause to the development of our follow-up activities may be seen by referring to map 1:

Our institution is one of 14 colleges in the southeast quadrant of the State, all of which are permitted by the State department of education to train teachers. When it is remembered that the State is predominantly rural and that its total population is less than 700,000, it will be seen that a real competitive struggle both for students and for placement of graduates is forced upon us. This fact led us to guard our placement reputation very jealously and to recommend for a position only those candidates whom we can back without much question. This policy has caused the institution to keep a heavy hand over its outgoing product and to be constantly



MAP 1.—South Dakota—Population of each quadrant and number and location of teacher-preparing institutions in southeastern quadrant

on the lookout for any cause that might endanger our reputation or, as the business man would say, "hurt our market."

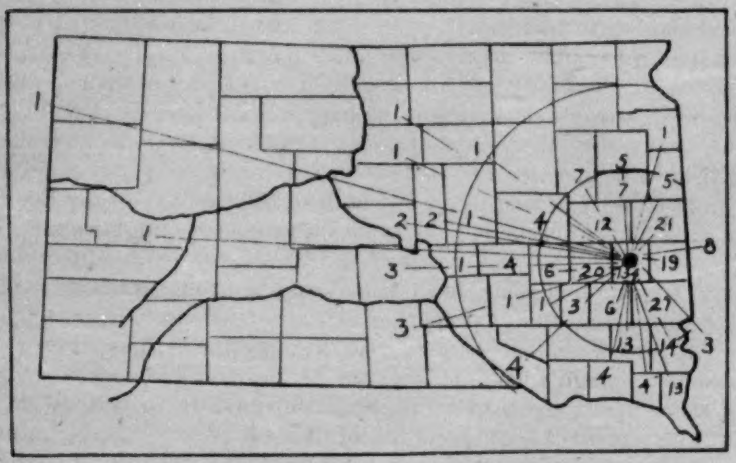
Before getting further into the discussion, may I introduce a second map to show our area of service:

This map shows a localization of service which is in line with Judd and Parker's recommendation.[2] We aim to concentrate upon an area to the outer limit of which a staff member can drive in any afternoon or early evening for visitation, conference, or an institute. A questionnaire recently sent to the normal schools and teachers' colleges of the United States reveals the fact that 80 per cent of the students in these institutions tend to come from an area whose radius is less than 100 miles, and that a similar percentage of graduates are placed in an area whose radius is only 50 miles

[2] U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 12, 1916.

greater. Without doubt the majority of State teacher-training institutions should organize to serve localized fields.

Another factor affecting the development of follow-up systems was a realization on the part of those responsible for the conduct of the school that the needs of the area should be studied—that the area should be surveyed to ascertain the number and kinds of teachers needed. This, of course, immediately forces the institution to consider very carefully the types of training to be offered. From the questionnaire referred to earlier, I found that about 20 per cent of the teacher-training institutions are beginning to make just such studies as are here indicated. May we hope that this is a beginning which, like the farm-management surveys promoted by agricultural colleges, may lead to very far-reaching results?



MAP 2.—Number and location of graduate-teachers served by Eastern State Teachers College

A survey of field needs, localized service, and insured successful functioning of graduates within the local area are part and parcel of a wider service[3] which the teachers colleges are beginning to give. These are basic to any system of follow-up which may be organized as a part of an institution's field service.

Eastern State Teachers' College has a director of field service who directs and has the assistance of a secondary supervisor, a senior intermediate supervisor, a junior intermediate supervisor, a primary supervisor, and a rural director. This, of course, is not a complete picture of this part of our organization, for the supervisors are in

[3] "The Wider Concept in Teacher Training," *American Educational Digest*, June, 1927, p. 440.

reality a part of the division of education and training and directly responsible to its head. It does, however, give an idea of how the plan was worked into our general organization. The duties of the director of field service may be summarized briefly. She first learns the teaching locations of all previous-year graduates who are working within our service area. This is made possible through cooperation with the placement section, letters to superintendents, and special conferences with students just before graduation. She then formulates two letters, one to superintendents in which she offers her services to them while they are getting new teachers adjusted, and one to the graduates—reminding them that the institution desires their success both for their own and their pupils' good.

Upon receipt of word from the field she first gives direct attention to emergency cases—and there are bound to be several of these—and next she begins to formulate itineraries for the various supervisors, arranging her plans so that only one supervisor will be away from the institution at a time and usually for not longer than a week. So far as possible she arranges the trips so that supervisors will visit the cadets they themselves trained. Often, however, a supervisor will have included in her route some teacher in whose training she had no direct part and whose special field may not be so fully known to her. This problem does not cause the trouble one might think. It does not arise at all in the case of rural teachers, for the director of rural education at some time during a cadet's course comes into contact with every student preparing for rural teaching.

The director of field service next arranges for each supervisor to become thoroughly familiar with the background and college record of the students she is to visit. She also trains the supervisor in a fully organized procedure, including the use of such blanks, rating sheets, and record forms as may be deemed advisable. It should be noted, however, that such necessities are kept well in the background during the visitation. The details of the trip are fully arranged in advance. Especially is this true in regard to rural visitations in order that the county superintendent may be in readiness to receive the visitor and to make the most of her time in the county.

During the time the supervisor is away from the college the director of field service is responsible for her work in the training school. Often, however, this is cared for by her assistants (room teachers) or by her fellow supervisors. Upon the return of the supervisor the director receives her report, including all the records agreed upon. At times conditions are such that a second and even a third visit is advisable or necessary. One instance comes to mind where three different staff members made five visits giving a total of nearly a week's time to a case.

In addition to the function mentioned in the foregoing, the director edits, publishes, and sends out a four-page paper known as the Eastern News-Letter, which is full of helpful hints, personal items, and suggestive articles. It is designed to promote a certain unity among the graduates and to tie up their interests with those of the institution. She also provides a large number of specific help leaflets or bulletins which are sent out upon request for a small fee. All but the last are furnished without cost to the student-teacher.

Although the director of field service is the center of the follow-up activities, she is not the only important factor. The visiting supervisors who trained the cadets are the factors equally important to the success of the work. Their service brings about a better adjustment of the student to his task as well as better adjustment of the institution to its work—it is to this back fire within the institution that one may first look for real results. As has already been indicated, the supervisor is the field-contact maker. After familiarizing herself with the previous work and background of the students she is to visit and after being trained to make the contacts properly and effectively and to compile the necessary records, she is sent directly to the counties. (I will limit myself chiefly to a discussion of the phases of the work in the rural districts.) The county superintendent takes her in charge and the real work begins.

The following procedures and activities are given as reported by the supervisors: After a period of observation of the way a teacher conducts her work, and in the light of a previous talk with the superintendent, the supervisor talks over the whole situation with the teacher, often making specific suggestions but usually trying to recall to the teacher's memory the training received. Sometimes this training seems to have dropped completely out of the girl's consciousness. The supervisor is usually plied with questions after the first reserve is overcome, and she gives every possible encouragement, directing criticisms at the pupil response rather than at the teacher's acts. In addition to the above more or less basic procedure, she supplies references to helpful material, shows how to meet local needs, leads the teacher to objectify her problem, often takes charge of classes for demonstration purposes, writes out suggestions for future or further attention, etc. If a group of the teachers can gather for an evening or Saturday conference she meets with them, encouraging them to consider their problems together.

A very important phase of the work is the contact of supervisors with superintendents. All too often these officers are untrained or inexperienced in supervision, although they may be excellent administrators or classroom teachers, and the supervisor can be a real help to them in leading them to see their supervisory problem. It may

not be a difficult task to give the superintendent a great deal of direct help when the supervisor can work with him on specific cases.

Another contact that may be necessary and very important is with the school board. Sometimes the board members are up in arms and need to be calmed. More often they are apparently helpless before a real problem, and, if so, they respond most willingly to the work of the visitor. One situation of this kind may be mentioned as an illustration. It concerned the relationship of a failing teacher in a small village with her superintendent. The problem had become so acute that the board would willingly have dismissed both if it could; but the law, as you know, makes it necessary to prefer very definite charges of incompetence, immorality, or the like, and such procedure is not only distasteful and uncertain but may cause serious neighborhood complications. The situation was patched (the right word) up until the end of the year; and as a result, instead of carrying out a threat never to engage another teacher from our college, the board now has nearly all of its staff members from our institution.

I have suggested the importance of the readjustment resulting within the institution. This shows itself in various ways. It compels us, first of all, to look to the material we undertake to train. So far as rural teachers are concerned, a real problem is here presented. In some ways this is more acute since the level of training has been raised above the secondary field. So many village and city high-school graduates present themselves for training in the one-year course because it provides the quickest route to earning that the market tends to be flooded with partially prepared girls entirely unsympathetic with rural life and rural problems. The city girl who is serious minded and alert can make a success in a rural school, but too many who elect this for their beginning field of work are not adapted either by nature or nurture to the task. Elimination must be made or else those not naturally fitted must become fitted through longer training and more maturity. Elimination is not popular and sometimes it hits in unfortunate places, but it is often the only way. At first our policy drew local fire because of the effect upon our total enrollment, but business men are beginning to see the "market" idea and are changing their attitude. A sentence from an unsolicited, favorable editorial from a paper well away from the school will illustrate the word that has gone out regarding this point:

> The Madison Normal sends home a considerable number each year when it finds that they are not seriously disposed in their work or for any other cause that is justifiable to the taxpayers of South Dakota.

Two other aspects immediately become evident when the effect of the follow-up work on the institution itself is considered. The super-

visor, as she continues year after year to carry on her activities, naturally becomes enamored of certain devices, procedures, and philosophies in her training work. These become habits; she feels comfortable and contented with them as she gains in power in transferring them to her students in training. Moreover, they work, really work, under the more or less artificial conditions of the training school where there are longer class periods and more time for preparation. But imagine her chagrin at finding these "pet" schemes of hers misapplied or not applied at all when she visits her own pupil in the field. She is, of course, inclined to "go to the mat" with the teacher on these matters, but some simple, unexpected question from the cadet will cause her to halt and reevaluate her whole procedure; and this is of no small benefit to herself and to her institution. And growing directly out of this, a second phase calls not only for changes in devices and methods but for revised curricula worked out under a new burden of practicability and adaptation. The fact is that we at Madison are becoming ashamed of our almost yearly request for curricula approvals from the State department of education and the regents of education.

A third effect upon the institution has also been referred to, namely, more careful placement. Some day we shall survey our areas both as to types of work needed and amount of product required; then we shall proceed to manufacture what the market demands. (Do not mistake me in concluding that the teachers' college should be a follower rather than a leader. Even manufacturers largely "make" their market.) Our placement work then will be much more important than it now is. Its importance will swing more to the needs of the situation and less to the needs of the teacher to be placed—a result already in evidence. One county superintendent has made two annual visits to our institution and spent several days interviewing prospective teachers for the one-room rural schools in her county, which is on the very edge of our area and yet uses from 20 to 40 of our students each year. Such procedure as this on the part of city superintendents is common, but it is an innovation for county superintendents.

A fourth general effect upon the institution is the necessity of organizing a real off-campus service. Medieval walls and ramparts, old philosophies and theologies are out of order in this modern unbelieving world. Taxpayers are no longer content to have their money appropriated year after year and see no results therefrom. Moreover, they are demanding that results be measurable and practical. Education is facing the acid test of proving its real worth to its supporters, and rightly organized and conducted off-campus service is one way to do this.

The following are a few of the more significant statements recently made to me by visiting supervisors regarding the effect of the work, as they see it, upon the teachers visited and upon the supervisors themselves.

Effects upon the teacher visited: "Eager to have supervisors come;" "Frequent questions arise regarding specific difficulties;" "Send in project and enterprise descriptions for publication;" "Decision to get more training;" "Direct attention to individual problems, their diagnosis, and the formulation of remedial measures;" "Ties teacher up to her graduating institution;" "Keeps teacher growing;" "Keeps teacher on her toes;" "Directs teacher to community as well as pupil needs;" "Develops a sense of the importance of rural teaching."

Effects upon the supervisor and school: "Realizing wherein theory, methods, and devices are not really functioning;" "Convinces supervisor that she must promote more student activity in her classes as opposed to supervisor activity" (real training *v.* course offerings); "Brings instruction down to earth;" "New evaluations of what is most worthy to be stressed;" "Shows the need of broadening the basic training, especially for one-room rural teachers;" "Draws supervisors together to consider related problems;" "Familiarizes supervisor with the work of schools into which her teachers go;" "Enriches teaching with problems direct from the field;" and "Promotes curriculum attention and revision."

At the end of the first period of our follow-up experiment the director of field service made a special report of the work, stating the conclusions he and his staff had reached. This summarizes the whole matter, and I am including it at this point:

CONCLUSIONS FROM FOLLOW-UP WORK

December, 1925

1. Our group of visiting instructors this fall feel that the greatest need of the teachers visited is better lesson planning. It was therefore determined that this point should receive greater emphasis, both in student teaching and in professional courses managed by the supervisors who visited. The advisability of using two types of lesson plans (one of them the regular detailed plan used by the training school for student teaching and the other an abridged plan that could be used by the teacher who has from two to eight grades to plan for each day) was considered. The working out of the suggestion was left to those directing student teaching or those teaching methods classes.

2. Another need of the teachers in the field is a different type of seat work, purposeful seat work which can be correlated with

the subjects taught and which will serve both to test the child's learning and as a check on the teaching. Supervisors decided that this need would be met better for students in training by having them actually make types of seat work to use next year, and that the need of our students or graduates in the field can be partly met by having samples of this seat work made by the classes in training and sent to those who need this help. This idea, too, will be tried by other instructors to whom a visiting instructor reports a need by some student in the field.

3. Supervisors are considering the possibility of concentrating on teaching skill in one or two subjects in different grades. An attempt is already being made to develop in each student skill in teaching both a drill subject and an informational subject in different grades.

The extent and the character of our follow-up activities for the two-year period from March 1, 1925, to March 1, 1927, are here summarized in tabular form:

1. Students visited in grade schools	114
2. Students visited in rural schools	128
3. Towns visited	31
4. Towns visited twice or more	11
5. Counties visited	16
6. Counties visited twice or more	5
7. Instructors in field	13
8. Days devoted to visiting in the field	130
9. Weeks of visitation	26

In addition to the above, the following basic convictions are emerging from our experiment:

1. Need for limitation of service area.
2. Specific survey of area needs.
3. Specific training curricula.
4. More care in selecting students.
5. More care in placing graduates.
6. Need for an apprentice year conducted under direction of the graduating institution.

4. Reports show that for the most part the need for help could be met by the adaptation to that need of the training already given in the college. This means that so far as we are able to learn from the students visited the need is not to give a new or different training in the college, but simply that we make what we do give fit the field situations better, especially as it concerns such problems as pupils' study, extra recitational instruction, ability to apply best education methods to the Dakota course of study, and an all-round preparation for the rural teacher.

5. In trying to prepare teachers to fit specific field situations, a need which the visits have vividly impressed upon us, we must be

careful lest we lose the position that a normal school should maintain, namely, that of a leader rather than follower in the State educational program. We must lift the field situations rather than be held down to them.

6. Opinions of visiting supervisors regarding the work are that it will be worth the time and money it costs for what it brings back to the college and for the help it can give to the beginning teachers. The supervisors are not ready to estimate the value of follow-up work for the strong and experienced teacher in the field.

7. Letters from superintendents whose teachers were visited indicate that they are hopeful with respect to this service. The general feeling seems to be that the work will be much more helpful if carried on early in the year.

In order to learn the attitude of the teachers' colleges in the United States and to determine just what is being done in the matter of follow-up service, I included a question on this point in the questionnaire previously referred to. A typical answer received is as follows:

> Circular letter is sent out by placement bureau each year in order to get information regarding the success of our graduates.

Of course, we all receive this sort of inquiry from the institutions from which we get teachers, whether they are heads of departments, room teachers, or what not. This is not follow-up work; for one thing, it does not cost enough to be follow-up work. Real follow-up work results from a realization on the part of the institution of its responsibility for the success of its product—a responsibility that influences the entire work of the school in careful selection, in specific and detailed training, in the development of attitudes, in provision for background culture, in studying and fitting the candidate to the position, and in holding a hand both heavy and helpful over the student-teacher until she really becomes a teacher-student.

It is not fair to assume that the teacher-training institutions are doing practically nothing in line with this broader responsibilty which I have tried to define. In several of them very significant developments are under way. May I call attention to two that should have more than passing mention? One is the Westfield Conference,[4] which one can well hope will be continued and developed to the limit of its possibilities. The other is an annual home-coming day at Towson, Md. Miss Tall, the president of Towson, writes:

> The definite aim of the conference is to have these young teachers who have been out not more than two months bring back their discouragements in order that they may shed some light on what we did not do for them. This is honestly and definitely the purpose of the meeting. We, of course, have

[4] "First Westfield Conference for Young Teachers," *School and Society*, June 18, 1927, p. 729.

luncheon and fun and a dance at night. That is not only to tie the young graduates to the school; the real purpose is an analysis of our work with them.

A circular sent to graduates in October, 1927, suggests the following tentative program and asks for preferences as to topics:

a. The maladjusted child who gives me trouble with discipline.
b. Beginning reading.
c. What the normal school failed to do for me.
d. How I missed my opportunities at the normal school.
e. My own spirit in meeting situations that are difficult but which I will not allow to defeat me.

Since this is a rural conference, may I suggest that in spite of the fact that this service will tend to become an urban service, because of the greater ease of organization and the wider recognition it may receive, its most important results will be within the rural schools where expert supervision is so hard to effect and where, because of the complexity of the problem and the inferior training of the teachers, it is so much more needed. It occurs to me, therefore, that we might urge it, in its beginnings at least, as a rural service. To do this we should insist that it be placed in the hands of persons disposed to stress the rural problem even at the expense of other phases of our work.

ADJUSTMENT OF THE SUPPLY OF AND DEMAND FOR QUALIFIED TEACHERS—THE STATE'S PROBLEM

A. F. Myers,
Director, Teacher Training, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio

One of the most important contributions which scientific management has given to society is its insistence upon the importance of proper selection and adequate supply of personnel. An adequate supply of personnel no longer means an oversupply, an abundance of cheap labor, as it once did in certain American industries. We have recognized that the best interests of all of us will be served when in each industry and profession there are neither too few nor too many of us engaged and when each of us is well qualified to do the work which he is doing. The industries in America which are experiencing the greatest difficulties to-day are those in which the supply of workers is greatly in excess of the demand. An outstanding illustration of this is found in the coal industry where there are at least twice as many miners as can be given employment.

In the teaching profession very little has been accomplished in the way of securing a proper relationship between the supply of and the demand for well-qualified teachers. Indeed, there are few States in which the proper officials know even approximately the number of new teachers needed annually. The necessity for know-

ing not only the number of new teachers needed annually in each State but also the number needed for each type of teaching service should require little demonstration. Society has a right to demand that there should be a well-qualified teacher in each classroom. If such a condition does not prevail the purpose for which that classroom exists will not be served. Society, which pays the bill, has a right to insist that we should know how many teachers we need to train for each type of teaching service and that we train them accordingly.

The need for reliable information relative to the supply of and the demand for trained teachers was probably never as great as it is now. Considering the country as a whole, and particularly in nonurban communities, we are only now approaching the period when we may expect to place a trained teacher in every classroom. We have never before even approached this highly desirable situation with respect to any teaching field, and therefore there has not been the necessity for being greatly concerned over the relationship of supply and demand, except that we knew the supply of trained teachers must be increased.

During the past two or three years, in the opinion of many educators, the supply has caught up with the demand. In one sense this is probably true. It is true that there are now enough applicants for teaching positions. It is even true that there are people with adequate training for teaching who have been unable to secure positions. What many of us have failed to consider, however, is that for every well-trained person who failed to secure a teaching position this year there were many inadequately trained people who did secure such positions.

This, in the opinion of the speaker, is one of the most serious aspects of the situation. The situation in Ohio illustrates the point perfectly. In 1926–27 there were 5,446 new teachers in Ohio. By a new teacher we mean a teacher who had never before taught in Ohio. In the preceding year all of the institutions in Ohio which train teachers succeeded in training for teaching only 3,689 people with two years or more of training. Of these 3,689 people trained for teaching, only 2,464, or 67 per cent, accepted teaching positions in public schools of Ohio the next year. Making due allowance for those who returned to the teaching profession after a period of absence and for those who entered Ohio from other States, we seem to be justified in concluding that in 1926–27 approximately 2,500 new teachers entered the teaching profession in Ohio with less than two years of training beyond the high school. Of this number the great majority had received only one year of training. In 1925–26, 51 county normal schools in Ohio trained with one year of training 1,076 people. Of this number, 932, or 87 per cent, accepted teaching

positions in Ohio public schools the following year. The number of trained teachers in Ohio who were unable or unwilling to accept teaching positions in the public schools of the State was sufficient to offset the entire contribution of the county normal schools and nearly 300 more.

This situation justifies the conclusion that in Ohio one of the most important problems in connection with providing trained teachers for its public schools is that of eliminating the cheap competition in order to give the trained teachers an opportunity to secure employment.

In Ohio the discrepancy between the supply of trained teachers and the demand for new teachers is greatest in the elementary field, provided we accept the standard of two years of training for elementary teaching and of four years of training for high-school teaching. Certainly few would care to argue that the standard proposed for elementary teaching is too high. In all of the teacher-training institutions in 1925–26 in Ohio, 1,487 people were given two years or more of training for elementary teaching. Of this number, 1,106 accepted teaching positions in the public schools of the State in 1926–27. In the same year 3,656 new teachers were appointed to teaching positions in the elementary schools of Ohio. In the high-school field, leaving out of account the special fields, 1,757 people were trained for teaching with four years or more of training. Of this number, 1,011 accepted teaching positions in the public schools of the State in 1926–27. In that year 1,281 new high-school teachers were appointed. Our situation, then, seems to be that we are training too many high-school teachers in Ohio and far too few elementary teachers.

This condition should not be a source of surprise to persons who are familiar with educational affairs in Ohio. In the first place, Ohio claims the distinction of having more colleges than any other State. I believe the validity of this claim depends somewhat upon one's interpretation of what constitutes a college. Leaving out of account the 51 county normal schools which were in existence in Ohio in 1925–26, there were 68 institutions engaged in training teachers in Ohio in that year. Of these institutions 40 are denominational and endowed colleges. They were interested primarily in the training of high-school teachers. There are five State-supported institutions which in 1925–26 trained 665 people for high-school teaching and 524 for elementary teaching. In 1925–26 the county normal schools of Ohio trained twice as many students for elementary teaching with one year of training as did all of the State institutions combined, with their standard of two or more years of training. Many students entered the teaching profession after at-

tending the State institutions and other institutions for a period of only one year.

I have attempted to present a sufficient number of details of the situation in Ohio to demonstrate that in one State at least the problem of the adjustment of the supply of and demand for qualified teachers needs attention. The situation may be summarized as follows:

(1) Too many high-school teachers were being trained.
(2) Not enough elementary teachers with standard training were being trained.
(3) However, those who were trained for elementary teaching were unable to secure positions due to the large number of candidates with less than standard training for the same position.
(4) Too many weak agencies were training teachers in Ohio.

All of these points have a very definite bearing on the problem of the adjustment of supply and demand. What should the State of Ohio do about such a situation?

In order to answer this question it may be profitable for us to consider the extent to which we wish to accept the principle that the training of teachers is a function of the State. Do we believe that all teachers should be trained in State institutions? Or do we believe that some teachers may be trained in non-State institutions which are approved by the State? In Ohio we have held quite consistently to the latter interpretation. Now, if the State is going to delegate part of this responsibility for training its teachers to certain non-State institutions which desire to train them, it seems clear that the State should assume the responsibility for determining and enforcing standards which these institutions must meet. Prior to 1927 Ohio failed completely in this direction. What it will do in the future remains to be seen. The policy of the State department of education in the past may best be summarized by this statement: "Prevent a teacher shortage at all costs, regardless of standards."

When a situation exists such as exists in Ohio, in which many teachers with standard training are unable to secure positions or are unwilling to accept positions for the salaries which are offered and in which one-half of all the new teachers possess less than standard training, the State has a very definite responsibility for correcting the situation. The only good reason for the certification of teachers with less than satisfactory training would seem to be that a sufficient number of teachers with satisfactory training is not available. When a situation exists such as has been described there would seem to be a need for raising standards for certification.

In such a situation there seems to be clearly presented also an excellent opportunity to eliminate short teacher-training courses

such as are offered in county normal schools in Ohio and in high-school training classes in some States. The county normal schools in Ohio provide one year of training beyond the high school. Since 1925–26 the State department of education has followed a policy looking toward the elimination of these institutions. County normal schools were first established in Ohio in 1914. They were most numerous in 1922–23, when there were 56 of them in operation. During the next two years there were 52 each year. In 1925–26 there were 51. In 1926–27 there were 30, the smallest number since these schools had been established. During the present school year there are 13 of these schools operating.

As was stated before, the State should assume the responsibility for determining the number of new teachers needed annually for each type of teaching service. Actually, the State's entire teacher-training program should be guided by such information, and in the absence of such information must proceed by hit-or-miss methods. Without such information it is difficult to understand how any teacher-training institution can hope to determine with any degree of accuracy the fields for which it should train teachers. In a State such as Ohio, where so many agencies are engaged in the task of training its teachers, it is especially important that some central agency should be charged with the responsibility of collecting and disseminating reliable information regarding the teacher-training needs of the State. The State department of education is the proper agency to do this work. The teacher-training agencies should be kept constantly informed by the State department of education regarding the number of teachers for each type of teaching service who will be needed for service in the public schools of the State.

The reason for the failure of the State department of education to have such important information is not difficult to find. The State department of education in Ohio has no division of research. Such a division is absolutely necessary in order to secure such vital information as that regarding the annual teacher-training needs of the State. Until the State department of education is able to establish a well-organized and well-staffed division of research which will make annual studies of the teacher-training needs of the State, as well as of the many other problems on which the department needs reliable information, the teacher-training institutions of the State must continue to train teachers more or less by guess.

Another important service which the State department of education should render to the teacher-training institutions and to the public schools of the State is in the problem of the placement of teachers. This again requires that the department should be in a position to collect and disseminate facts. During that portion of the year when teachers are being placed the State department of education should receive frequent and regular reports from the teacher-training institutions regarding teachers yet to be placed, and from the employing officials of the public schools, regarding vacancies to be filled. The institutions should provide the State department of education with complete

copies of the credentials which they use in their placement offices. With this information at its disposal, and with an adequate staff for carrying on the work, the State department of education would be in a position to render a real service to the schools of the State by seeing to it that the teachers who were trained were placed in positions for which they were trained

ADJUSTMENT OF THE SUPPLY OF AND DEMAND FOR QUALIFIED RURAL TEACHERS—THE STATE'S PROBLEM

By CHARLES EVERETT MYERS

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The State's problem in effectively supplying the demand for qualified teachers hinges upon the attitude the State takes toward defining "qualified teachers." In 1921 Pennsylvania legalized the traditional ideal of the profession and made it mandatory that beginning with the school year of 1927–28 all persons certified to teach be graduates of a standard two-year normal school or its equivalent. The tendency is strong to interpret the law to mean two years of regular resident work in the normal schools or teachers' colleges. The conditions have been favorable and the law has been effective for the State as a whole, but over 8,000, or about 20 per cent of the elementary teachers of the State, are teaching in one-room schools, and for 1926–27 just 23 per cent of these were normal-school graduates.

Diagram 1 shows how the normal-school graduates in one-room schools are distributed over the State by counties. The unexpected white areas in the black belt can be accounted for, at least partially, by the special attention given to in-service training of various sorts.

The average length of service of a normal-school graduate in the one-room schools is over 12 years, while Taylor [5] gives the average length of service of all normal-school graduates in the State as less than 8 years. Thirty-seven per cent graduated before 1921.

It appears that there are two rather distinct types of normal-school graduates in Pennsylvania who teach in rural schools: First, those who for some reason are willing to teach in rural schools for many years; and second, those who are forced to accept such positions the first or second year out of school. During the last few years, with an increasing supply of normal-school graduates, the second type of teacher is becoming more numerous and in some sections has created a problem of social and professional maladjustment that is really serious. The administration of the law requires the superintendent and school board to employ the normal-

[5] Taylor, W. S. Development of Professional Education of Teachers in Pennsylvania. 293 pp. Lippincott, Philadelphia. 1924.

school graduate, if she will accept, without regard to her social fitness for the position in question. In many rural communities the ability of the teacher to conform to certain social and economic con-

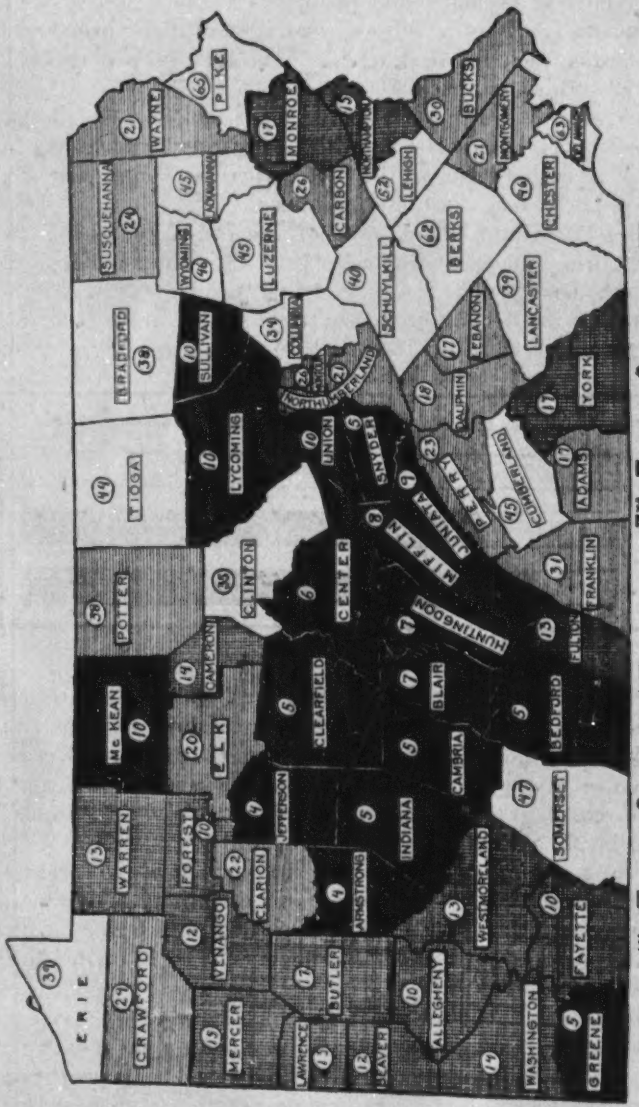

DIAGRAM 1.—Per cent of one-teacher schools taught by normal-school graduates in 1926–27

ditions is essential to her usefulness as a teacher in that community. Her ability to make the unchangeable living conditions which she finds contribute to her comfort and happiness is essential to con-

tinued school efficiency. The long average service of normal-school graduates in one-teacher schools shows that on the whole they are not as transient in these positions as one often hears. Whether those who are relatively permanent in one-teacher schools are efficient is another question. Why a large proportion of the normal-school graduates who teach in rural schools have long service records in these schools is also another question.

The normal schools of the State train 5 per cent of their graduates for the one-room school positions, which constitute 20 per cent of the elementary school positions in the State, whereas 7½ per cent of the graduates actually teach in these positions.

According to King,[6] 14 per cent of the one-room schools were taught by normal-school graduates in 1917–18. The number of one-room schools has been decreasing during these nine years. There were 1,564 normal-school graduates teaching in these schools in 1917–18, as compared with 1,830 in 1926–27, an increase of 266 in

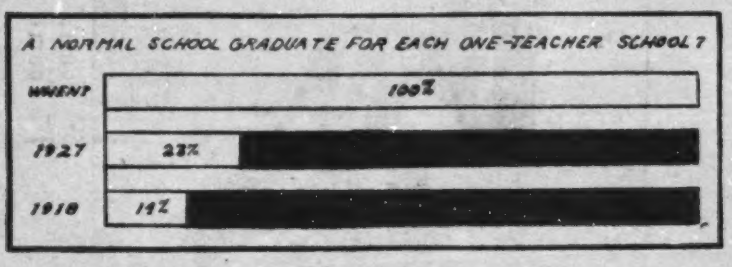

DIAGRAM 2

nine years, or about 30 per year. Diagram 2 shows the percentage of growth and asks a question. If the progress during the past nine years of intensive effort justifies a prediction, the answer is 77 years. If the number of one-room schools remain the same as now, adding 30 normal-school graduates a year, Pennsylvania would reach its legal goal in 273 years.

From the foregoing facts it would appear self-evident that the legal certification requirement of a minimum training of graduation from a two-year normal school or its equivalent either has had little appeal to the one-teacher school situation outside of 12 to 15 counties or else the methods for achieving the ideal have been impracticable. That it is impracticable for the prospective teacher to spend two years' time and $1,500 to $2,000 to qualify for an eight months' job at $100 a month does not need presentation. The generalization that the salary schedule and certification are the foundation for a State program for the professional preparation of teachers is easy to

[6] King, Le Roy Albert. Status of the Rural Teacher in Pennsylvania. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bul. No. 34, 1921.

defend. But the value of an ideal will be established before a profession is justified in exerting itself to make it operative. It is reasonable to start with the assumption that professional efficiency will be increased by specialized training, but educators have been too free to accept common observation evidence and philosophizing in building up the nature of the training.

Last year 13 State teacher-training institutions and the research division of the Pennsylvania State Education Association attempted to coordinate their work in 14 separate units of the same experiment to determine the effect upon pupil learning when the pupils were taught:

1. By normal-school graduates from the regular rural course.
2. By normal-school graduates from other than the rural course.
3. By relatively untrained teachers.

Twelve units of the study were completed and the results are being interpreted. More reliable and more extensive data of the same nature are being collected in a different manner this year and the organization is expected to continue this year's plan on for several years. Other States and institutions should organize similar studies so that the findings in Pennsylvania may be classed either as local or general.

Diagram 3 is presented to show that there is more than personal opinion or logic to justify raising the question as to the effectiveness of present normal-school training for rural teachers. Seventy-seven per cent of the one-teacher schools were taught by nonnormal-school graduates, yet the learning efficiency of their pupils ranks highest. Undoubtedly, there is a constantly increasing percentage of normal-school graduates as the size of school increases. This would indicate a negative correlation between professional preparation of teachers and the learning efficiency of pupils. These results may appear startling to some, but they represent the general trend of all standard test data which I have been able to interpret from the Virginia State survey to the present, though all these studies emphasize conclusions in harmony with professional tradition about the superiority of the urban school. Diagram 4 (the black bars alone) represents the same data as Diagram 3, presented in the customary manner. Each diagram is equally true, but each represents a different fact.

When the "back-to-the-farm" movement made no headway or constantly got people into trouble, it eventually evolved that it was highly undesirable from almost every point of view. It is untenable that professional preparation of teachers is undesirable, but present evidence and past experience justify a searching inquiry into the desirability of the type of preparation ordinarily approved. Upon

what foundation does the legal definition of "qualified teachers" rest? What justification is there for the usual normal-school curriculum for rural teachers? The answers are one, namely, professional tradition and philosophy unverified. The real need at present is the experimental testing of promising theories. Personally, I would consider it an economic waste for Pennsylvania to spend more than

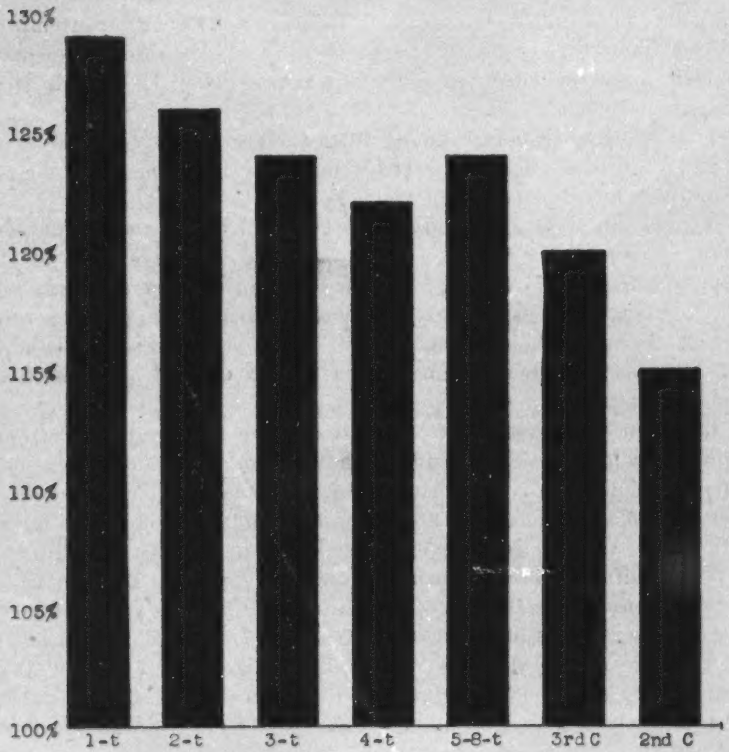

DIAGRAM 3.—Annual learning efficiency in schools of varying size; based upon standard test scores in school achievement, mental ability, and length of school term

is now being spent to expand and extend the present type of training for rural teachers.

One type of training which appeals to me as well worth trying, experimentally, is suggested by experiments in measuring the results of so-called "supervision,"[7] or more accurately described as in-service

[7] Pittman, M. S. The Value of Supervision. Warwick and York, 1921.
Educational Bulletin No. 74. Indiana State Department of Public Instruction, 1924.
Crabbs, Lelah Mae. Measuring Efficiency in Supervision and Teaching. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925.
Michigan Education Association. The Value of Supervision in the Rural Schools of Oakland County. Lansing, 1926.

professional education. A few years of teaching under such direction emanating, possibly, from the teachers' colleges and the county superintendent's office might be shown to merit a normal-school diploma. It is altogether possible, personally I think probable, that the failure of the legal requirement of graduation from a normal school to become fully effective in one-teacher schools may not be due at all to the high standard but to the type of training the standard represents. Even a higher standard of a different type might be supported under present conditions if it were made to order to fit those conditions.

EDUCATIONAL, MENTAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL AGES OF EIGHTH GRADE PUPILS IN SCHOOLS OF VARYING SIZE

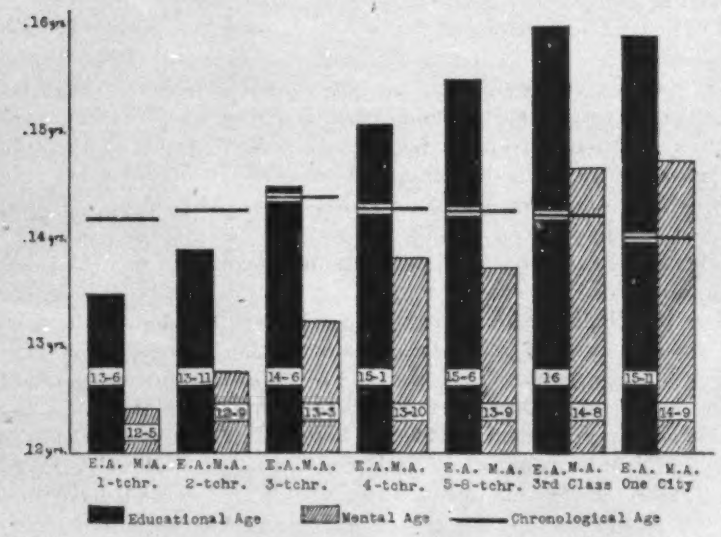

DIAGRAM 4

It may be feasible for many normal schools to inaugurate the type of experiment in supervision referred to above with the added element of measuring the acquisition of knowledge by the teacher and comparing her general professional growth with that of similar persons who go through the traditional resident courses. The set-up for the experiments should include such formal instruction as is thought desirable with classes meeting on certain Saturdays and during the summer. It should be determined just what preparation can be secured best on the job and what can be secured best in residence.

Such a plan for giving professional training has, in my opinion, the following advantages over resident training:

1. It is cheaper. If one teacher trainer, with a total cost of $5,000, were assigned 50 rural teachers, the cost would be $100 per year per teacher, or $400 for four years' training. The resident training costs the State about $400 each year, or $800 or more for each graduate, and in addition the graduate has been to greater expense without any earning income. Hence, the cost to the State should be less than half the present cost and the total cost to the individual only a pittance compared with resident study.

2. The waste due to failure to teach is eliminated and that due to short service is minimized.

3. The proposed in-service training would tend to select trainees who have grown up in one-teacher schools and who are already skilled in living under rural conditions.

4. The trainee develops in the environment of her work and learns to idealize what she is doing as she grows in efficiency. I believe that every worker should idealize his job rather than some other job. Rural teaching is different from urban teaching, and it is impossible to do a good job of training for one in the environment of the other or when the other is idealized. Who would think of training a dentist in a school for oculists, or what reason is there for a teacher of dentistry to feel that it is his bounden duty to inform his students concerning the methods of the oculist and idealize the advantages of that profession?

The big challenge to educators to-day is to develop professional information through scientific experimentation. The field of rural education in general and the training of rural teachers in particular offers an exceptional opportunity for such activity. We know that the type of experiment advocated here will pay big dividends in terms of pupil advancement, and if we can show that it meets the need for the professional preparation of teachers we shall have made a great and effective stride in professional knowledge and efficiency.

STATE LEGISLATION AND REGULATIONS TO GUARANTEE AN ADEQUATE PROFESSIONAL STAFF FOR RURAL-SCHOOL POSITIONS

By NED DEARBORN,

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An adequate professional staff for rural-school positions is dependent upon such a variety of factors that it is unsound to divide or scatter the responsibility for leadership in the solution of this problem. There is a diversity of types of professional work to be done in the rural schools which is commonly expressed by such terms as teaching, supervision, and administration. In addition to various

types of service there are many types of schools classified as rural schools. The most commonly accepted definition of a rural school is that school which is located in a community of 2,500 population or less. In addition to teachers and supervisors of the regular elementary and secondary school subjects there are teachers and supervisors of special subjects. From the standpoint of administration rural schools are classified from the one-room elementary school to the large consolidated school including an elementary department, a junior high school, a senior high school, and all of the special features which modern education has introduced.

The quality of the personal service which is secured for rural schools is determined in large part by the working conditions of the rural school, by the living conditions of the rural community, and by the financial remuneration for rural-school service. All these matters are in turn in large part dependent upon the wealth and taxing power of the local school district, the unit of educational administration, and the supplementary financial assistance given by the State. The importance of comparing working and living conditions and financial rewards with the same factors in urban schools and with other occupations must not be overlooked. These factors, interrelated as they are and forming a very complex problem as they do, determine very largely the conditions of supply and demand.

With the distribution of natural wealth and acquired wealth as uneven as it is, it is perfectly clear that some school districts, particularly in those States where the local school district is small, will be less able to pay for adequate educational facilities than others. Good school administration has long since concluded that under such circumstances the State is under obligations to equalize the educational opportunities for all of its school children by increasing the amount of State subsidy for local school districts. Where any extended plan of State subsidy is in operation there has been a companion policy of State direction and control. Therefore, it seems in this discussion we may begin with the assumption that there should be a centralized plan of State direction and control.

The second assumption has to do with the relative amount of legislation and State board of education regulations providing an adequate professional staff for rural school positions. Due to the fact that State legislatures are concerned with a great variety of matters outside of the field of public-school service, it may be assumed that the formulation of policies and regulations for the administration and supervision of educational procedures should be left in the hands of a special board or commission created for the purpose. Such a practice has ample precedent in practically every phase of State work. For example, in New York State we have State departments

for the administration of farms and markets, audit and control, banking, charity, civil service, conservation, correction, executive, health, insurance, labor, law, mental hygiene, public service, public works, State taxation and finance—also education. When such departments are created by the State legislature, and when their acts are as closely supervised as they are by the legislature through the granting of appropriations it is desirable that legislation should be reduced to a minimum. Dissatisfaction with the policies and regulations of a State department is very definitely reflected and at an early date in the appropriations granted by State legislatures.

In view of the foregoing assumptions, the following recommendations are made with reference to State legislation effecting the guaranty of an adequate professional staff for rural-school positions:

(1) There should be a law creating as an integral part of the State government an education department charged with the general management and supervision of all public educational work of the State. The determination of policies of the State department of education should rest with a State board of education upon the recommendation of the responsible head of the State department of education, namely, the State commissioner of education. The State board of education should be a lay board and nonpolitical in character. In New York the State board of education is known as the board of regents, the membership of which is three more than the existing number of judicial districts of the State. The members are elected by joint ballot of both houses of the legislature and for a term of years corresponding to the number of members of the board. The members of the State board of education should serve without salary and should be so elected that the membership is rotating. The result of the plan in New York is a State board of education unhampered by political affiliations and representative of the entire population of the State.

(2) There should be a law authorizing the State department of education, through its chief executive, to formulate and administer, subject to the approval of the State board of education, necessary policies and regulations. The State department of education, all members of which should be appointed by the State board of education on the recommendation of the State commissioner of education, should be professional people whose knowledge of conditions affecting education and whose training and experience as educators fit them for the heavy responsibility of formulating and executing policies—the State board of education, a lay board, as indicated before, serving as a necessary check.

(3) There should be a law providing for required subventions by the legislature through appropriation acts: (*a*) To enable the State board of education to organize and maintain an adequate staff of

assistants for the State commissioner of education in the State department of education; (*b*) to enable the establishment and maintenance of adequate facilities for an effective program of preparation for administrators, supervisors, and teachers; (*c*) to enable local school districts to create and operate an effective program of education in terms of adequate personnel, grounds, buildings, and equipment.

(4) There should be laws making possible the establishment of local school units adequate in size to solve the problems of local taxation and to provide for effective local educational administration and supervision. It has already been pointed out how dependent the program for the preparation of teachers is even upon the size of the taxing unit and upon the size of the administrative and supervisory unit.

These proposed laws related to State subsidy are essential to a sound legal foundation for an educational program and will provide a second check upon the educational policy proposed by the State department of education. There are relatively few policies which do not call for financial subsidy when administered effectively, and even though the State board of education approves the policies it is still necessary to have indirect approval of the State legislature as represented by appropriation acts. Thus the people of the State are protected against fanatical or ill-advised educational administration and supervision. It is a matter of record in New York State, for example, where there is a degree of centralization of power not existing in some States, that educational legislation not meeting the approval of the people of the State is at once repealed by the legislature and that unpopular policies requiring financial support are rendered ineffective due to the failure of the legislature to make the necessary appropriations. At all times legislation and policies of the State department of education are subject to the scrutiny and appraisal of the public, and no official of a State department of education who has served for even a brief period of time in an important administrative position would be unwise enough to attempt to enforce a policy which met with widespread and vigorous opposition. The wise administrator will "make haste slowly"—assuring progress which is stable and therefore enduring. Thus the principles of democracy are preserved in education.

In referring to the policies of a State department of education it is understood that they are always subject to the approval of the State board of education on the recommendation of the State commissioner of education. This, in addition to providing the necessary balance between professional zeal and the practical demands of the layman, provides for the location of responsibility which avoids confusion in administration. The recommendation of the commis-

sioner of education provides for the proper coordination of the activities of the State department of education and unifies the program in such a way that the State board of education under this plan is not called upon to digest a vast quantity of unrelated proposals.

(1) The State department of education should establish and maintain a system of records and reports showing annually the instructional service needs of all phases of rural-school work. Without an adequate system of records and reports no one can determine policies which will insure an adequate professional staff for rural schools. For example, how many teachers for the one-room rural schools should be provided by a State each year? The question can not be answered unless one knows the number of new positions created, the number of positions made vacant by withdrawals from the profession, or by transfers to other types of service from one-room rural-school teaching, and the number of transfers made from one school to another of the same type. Without information of this kind the State officer responsible for this work can only guess, and even though he has a low percentage of error in his guessing he is handicapped by reason of the lack of objective data which strengthen his influence with both the school and the general public, and which enable him to make progress more rapidly than the best guesser could hope to make.

(2) The State department of education should establish and maintain adequate facilities for the preparation of all classes of instructional service. This involves the consideration of such questions as the kind of facilities desired, the extent of facilities provided, and their distribution throughout the State to serve more effectively the needs of the entire State.

(3) There should be unification of training facilities for the various phases of professional service for rural schools. Experience teaches us that it is unsound to depend upon local training units to develop their own standards. In the first place, a local training-school administrator is rarely in a position to know the needs of an entire State, and, furthermore, he is subject to the pressure of local prides and the urge of personal ambition. Such matters as admission requirements, length of curricula, kinds of curricula, qualifications of faculty members, compensation for faculty members, teaching load, library facilities, training-school facilities, equipment needs, and graduation requirements indicate a series of problems which, unless administered according to a set of minimum standards, will lead to endless confusion. Not only should the training facilities for rural-school service be unified in terms of a State program, but they should be properly coordinated with the facilities for the preparation of professional service for urban communities. With proper coordination, a substantial economy can be effected in terms of time,

effort, and money expended. Without such coordination the unfortunate differences which exist in the standards for rural-school work and for city-school work will be accentuated rather than diminished. The educational outcomes for rural-school children and for city-school children are in the main identical. Environmental conditions may result in a variation of methods of organization and of teaching, but the importance of preparation of rural-school teachers can not be overemphasized in developing a program for the preparation of this group in every way as adequate as the preparation of teachers for urban schools. The coordination of all training facilities is essential in bringing this to pass.

(4) The State certification of teachers and school officers should be coordinated with the teacher-training program of the State. It is not difficult to find States where the responsibility for the formulation and administration of certification is indirectly, if at all, related to the teacher-training program. When such a condition obtains the certification program may become a serious obstacle to progress in developing an adequate teacher-training program. In those States where teacher certification and teacher training are coordinated State certification may very readily lend itself to the improvement of classroom service throughout the State by assisting rather than obstructing the development of a teacher-training program.

(5) The improvement of training and certification standards should be determined in large part by the law of supply and demand. It would be absurd to prepare 3,000 teachers for the rural schools of a given State each year when only 1,500 were required. Some margin, probably 10 or 15 per cent over the demand, would be desirable to provide for geographical limitations in placement and also to provide a margin of safety for selection, although the margin can be reduced as standards for admission and graduation are improved.

(6) In the early part of this discussion it was pointed out that there are many factors to be considered in the solution of the problem of an adequate supply of a professionally trained staff for rural schools. It therefore becomes important that the State department of education formulate and administer regulations which will relate to established policies and which will provide for adequate control and direction in such matters as records and reports of supply and demand, certification, selection of prospective teachers, length and kind of training curricula, graduation requirements for training centers, training faculty qualifications, buildings and equipment for training centers, distribution of funds, size of taxing and administrative school units, rural-school curricula, and standards for rural-school buildings, grounds, and equipment.

Working conditions being so strong a factor in the selection of work by prospective teachers, it is obvious that factors which at first thought are only indirectly related to the preparation of teachers and school officers are in the last analysis factors of very great consequence and factors deserving the most careful consideration.

This discussion might be summarized (1) by urging only that legislation which will authorize the creation of a professional body of control and direction and which will provide funds for adequate professional leadership and service—all checked directly by a lay board and indirectly by the legislature through its appropriation acts; (2) by advocating a central State control which is able to study the problems of rural-school service, and empowered, under proper check, to formulate and administer policies; and (3) by ever keeping in mind the many factors related to and affecting the preparation of rural-school teachers and officers and by appreciating the inestimable value of a well-prepared professional staff for our important but relatively neglected rural schools.

APPLICATION OF STANDARD COURSES TO THE SPECIALIZED NEEDS OF RURAL TEACHERS

R. L. Bunting

Sam Houston State Teachers College, Texas

What are the special needs of rural teachers and how can these needs be supplied through the courses of our teacher-training institutions? The special needs of rural teachers are those knowledges, skills, and appreciations required to meet the special needs of rural education; and these needs can be supplied through a curriculum for rural teachers sufficiently differentiated as to special courses providing those special knowledges, skills, and appreciations needed. Stated in general terms, that is the substance of our dominant philosophy of rural education to-day. I wish that generally accepted specific answers could be given, for these questions are now claiming the serious attention of normal school and teachers college administrators and rural educationists in practically every section of the Nation. To hasten the time when satisfactory specific answers can be made, the policy makers of these institutions and rural-education theorists need to enter into more effective cooperation in the matter. At present the policy makers are asking for clearer and more convincing answers as a basis for their planning than the educationists are able to give, while the educationists are asking the administrators for better opportunities than they have heretofore generally afforded for working out solutions to these problems. The fact is that as yet

adequate research and administrative provision for making adequate research regarding these issues have been altogether too limited.

In spite of the above facts, material progress has been made in many phases of rural education, particularly in its philosophical aspect. Almost unanimous agreement among the leaders has been reached on the point that the general objectives of rural education are identical with the objectives of education in general. This agreement clarifies a number of situations, especially the one having to do with subject-matter content. We are no longer troubled with the idea that we should equip teachers with a knowledge of special subject matter calculated to make the rural child more rural in order to keep him on the farm.

If the objectives of rural education are identical with those of urban education one might ask, Why this increasing demand for specialized training for rural teachers? It is that certain special requirements inherent in the rural-school situation may be properly met. Carney [8] and Brim [9] block out a program of community relations of the rural school that throws some light upon the question. They would have the rural school (1) to provide a standard education for rural children of legal school age; (2) to educate the community into an adequate support and appreciation of education; (3) to cooperate with other agents—health officers, social leaders, county librarians, religious workers, farm and home demonstration agents, etc.—in such of their activities as are educative to children of school age and ability; (4) to stimulate the establishment or regeneration of other community activities or agencies, when lacking or dormant, that will supplement the work of the school and minister to the essential needs of children; and (5) in certain backward places to stimulate all phases of rural progress. In addition to these five responsibilities which both Carney and Brim, as I read them, assign to the rural school, one or the other of them deems the following functions legitimate: (1) To furnish information for putting adults of the community in touch with public and private agencies of county, State, and national scope which will contribute to their cultural or vocational welfare; (2) to extend the community functions of the school to adult education, both cultural and vocational, when the essential needs of children have been properly met; and (3) to afford the community a *good citizen* in the person of the teacher. Most of the above-implied requirements would not be made of city teachers, but they are specific obligations of the rural teacher, as these forward thinkers view them—obligations which, under present conditions, the rural teacher ought to shoulder.

[8] Carney, Mabel. Legitimate community relations of rural schools. Journal of Rural Education, 2: 385–392.

[9] Brim, O. G. Community relations of rural elementary schools. Journal of Rural Education, 2: 441–449.

McGuffey [10] has shown that the job of the rural teacher, not necessarily as it ought to be but as it now exists in the United States, is significantly different from that of a corresponding teacher in our large school systems. Here we have two lines of evidence that the work of the rural teacher is a specialized task. To exactly the extent that her position is a specialized one, the rural teacher's needs are specialized. To that same extent should her preparation be differentiated from that of other teachers, for, according to the most universally approved principle of American education, there should be specific preparation for each particular type of work to be done—a principle based primarily upon the pronouncement of many contemporary psychologists that appreciations, judgments, and skills are specific and not general.

Analysis and classification of the numerous elements and factors of our rural educational situation reveal three major needs peculiar to present-day American rural schools. Each of these needs demands special preparation by the teacher. These needs are, (1) a different type of organization from the graded city school, due to the problem of many grades per teacher and different administrative machinery; (2) different community relations, due to different sociological conditions; and (3) different subject-matter approach and emphasis, due to the special environment and background experience of rural children. Corresponding to these three requirements of the rural school are three major specialized needs of rural teachers. These are (1) A knowledge of and skill in organizing and managing the most efficient type of rural school—an organizational and managerial need; (2) a knowledge of and tact in promoting and using desirable rural social institutions and cultural resources—a sociological need; and (3) an appreciation of the rural environment and experience which will make possible the best approach and emphasis upon subject matter—a curricular need. In addition to the needs just mentioned, which may be thought of as inherent to rural teaching and therefore permanent, one temporary need should be recognized. This is the need for professional enthusiasm for rural teaching, a sense of worthiness of the position, and special fitness for filling it, the benefits of a constructive esprit de corps among the 300,000 or more rural teachers of the Nation.

Any curriculum that supplies each of these needs, whether it be a two, three, or four year curriculum, will have to offer a number of specialized courses. The minimum amount of specialization at all adequate to a satisfactory program requires the following differentiation:

1. *One special course in rural education.*—This course might well be organized around four major units. The first unit would treat

[10] McGuffey, Verne. An analysis of the job of the rural elementary teacher. Unpublished.

of rural-school organization and management. Grouping, classification, standardization, score cards, libraries, records, reports, attendance, program making, teacher personality as a control factor, discipline, and school sanitation would be among the essential topics. Unit 2 would study rural-school curriculum adjustments. Some of the necessary topics would be the aim of rural education, special needs of rural children, use of rural resources, adapting subject matter to rural experience, project teaching in rural schools, experimental rural schools, notable rural courses of study, and collecting and preserving teaching materials. Unit 3 should evaluate various extracurricular activities of rural schools. Some of the chief topics needing consideration are: Rural recreation, excursions, community rural welfare organizations, the school as social center, club work, pageants, exhibits, and rural dramatics. The fourth unit would treat of rural-school supervision and administration. For rural supervisors and administrators this should be expanded into a full course or even into separate distinct courses for both supervision and administration. For the classroom teacher such topics should be considered as the aim of supervision, the aim of administration, the relation of teacher and supervisor, teacher rating, professional growth, consolidation, finance, surveys, the use of standard tests, school law, etc.

2. *One special course in rural sociology and economics.*—As in the course in rural education, the wealth of material to be considered is so great that selection of topics has to be made on the basis of what is most essential rather than as to what is merely useful to the rural teacher. No course is likely to be given time enough to cover all the helpful topics. Among those to be found in any such course, however, should be cooperation, implications of isolation, surveys, child labor, tenancy, standards of living, health, recreation, rural-urban relations, communication, production, marketing, incomes, conservation of natural resources, the rural church, the rural press, rural welfare organizations, credit agencies, government, taxation, freight rates, and the rural heritage of the Nation. This course should supply the teacher with an appreciation of rural life and qualify her to deal tactfully with country folk.

3. *Graded practice teaching*, at least six weeks of which must be specialized practice in one-teacher and consolidated rural schools, the student actually living in the community in which she does her practice work and sharing in the conduct of related community activities during her training period.

4. *Special or additional topics and projects* within regular subject-matter courses—geography, arithmetic, civics, physiology, nature study, art, etc.

5. In addition to the above-outlined differentiated class work every prospective rural teacher should be afforded *active membership in a rural student organization* or country life club. When sponsored by capable and enthusiastic professors the association in such a club will contribute largely to the growth of professional pride in rural teaching and the development of a wholesome morale among rural teachers.

These are the courses generally thought sufficient in differentiating curricula for rural teachers from those of city teachers. The extent of thoroughness with which they supply the needs of rural teachers depends, of course, upon the preparation of the instructors who direct the work and the amount of time that is given to each specific course.

The rural education path is well beaten to this point of rather general agreement upon the special needs of rural teachers and upon the differentiated courses thought adequate to supply those needs. Beyond that point the route of the path is still largely in the hands of our professional trail blazers. There is the most diverse practice in the way these courses appear in the different curricula, the amount of time and credit given them, and the content of the courses themselves. One feels justified in saying that there are no *standard* courses in this country for rural teachers. There are many variations of a rather common pattern, but no course anywhere of which I know that has been professionally constructed, experimentally applied, and comparatively proved worthy of adoption as standard. Rural-teacher training is in sore need of just such scientific evaluation of the ideas now favored regarding curricula for rural teachers.

Lacking the guidance of such researches, we are proceeding along the trial and error way upon the basis of our best guesses to the construction of curricula designed to accomplish our ends of giving the rural youth of America as adequate public-school service as is afforded our urban children. Recent investigations have found that the two-year curriculum was the model type of rural curriculum in the publicly supported teacher-training institutions of the Nation in 1927. Theoretically, I think there is great danger to the cause of rural education in allowing the two-year curriculum to become the typical one for rural teachers. The rural job is generally conceded to be the most difficult professional position in American schools. For service of equal quality a better prepared teacher is required in the rural school with its many subjects, many grades, and poorer supervision than is required in our city schools, where they are asking and getting teachers with three and four years of preparation. A democratic country that can afford such preparation for its city teachers should provide at least as much for those who teach in

the country places. It is a fundamental obligation of such a society to provide equal public educational opportunity to all its youth alike. Hence every school administrator and teacher, both urban and rural, in behalf of our national ideals as well as in justice to the 11,000,000 children in our rural and village schools, should think and plan for the future in terms of the three and four year curriculum for rural teachers since it has become the standard among city teachers. In the meantime the two-year curriculum fits in with practice and we must deal with it. This obligates us to its best possible organization.

Because of its shorter preparatory period, the two-year curriculum presents greater difficulty than any other in the administration of the differentiation recommended above. To show how this specialization can be provided for, even in a two-year program, I submit the following *proposed, not standard*, two-year curriculum for high-school graduates preparing for one-teacher schools and the elementary grades of consolidated schools. This was worked out in the rural education major course at Teachers College, Columbia University, and thus embodies the viewpoint of that department as well as the consensus of opinion of some 100 graduate students of the department. Most of these students are responsible rural education leaders in their respective States which compose practically the entire Nation. This curriculum is planned on a three-unit basis, of which this is unit 1 for what might be called Group A for administrative purposes. Units 2 and 3 for Groups B and C are identical with this, save for adaptations which enable an institution with limited training facilities to care for a larger number of students. Figures in the first column indicate recitation or laboratory hours per week; those in the second column, quarter credit hours.

Proposed curriculum for high-school graduates preparing for one-teacher schools

FIRST YEAR

First term	Recitation or laboratory hours per week	Quarter credit hours	Second term	Recitation or laboratory hours per week	Quarter credit hours	Third term	Recitation or laboratory hours per week	Quarter credit hours
Observation and participation	2	1	Group teaching	3	1½	Room practice and beginners	5	2½
Introduction to teaching	3	3	Educational psychology	5	5	Technique of teaching and measurements	4	4
Geography	5	5	Arithmetic	5	5	Reading method	5	3
Nature study	6	3	General science (biological)	10	5	Nature study and agriculture	10	5
Industrial arts (primary)	5	2	Physical education and games	3	1	Health education	3	3
Library method	3	1						
Weekly themes	1	1						
	25	16		26	17½		27	17½

Proposed curriculum for high-school graduates preparing for one-teacher schools—Continued

SECOND YEAR

First term	Recitation or laboratory hours per week	Quarter credit hours	Second term	Recitation or laboratory hours per week	Quarter credit hours	Third term	Recitation or laboratory hours per week	Quarter credit hours
First six weeks			Special practice	3	1½	Consolidated room practice and beginners [1]	7	3½
Rural education [1]	8	4	History and principles of education	3	3	Language method	5	3
Rural sociology and economics [1]	8	4	History and civics	5	5	Children's literature	3	3
Music	5	2½	General science (physical and chemical)	8	4	Industrial arts (intermediate)	5	2
Physical education and games	3	1	Drawing and art appreciation	5	2½	Principles of sociology and economics	5	5
Second six weeks								
Rural-school teaching [1]	15	5						
Community activities and school lunch								
	39	16½		24	16		25	16½

[1] Especially differentiated for rural students.

Space demands that the curriculum speak for itself. The fact that everyone will probably wish to make at least some changes in it tends to substantiate the claim that we do not as yet have standard courses for the preparation of rural teachers in this country. I think that you possibly would want to make as many changes in any curriculum that might have been presented.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS—NEEDS AND FACILITIES

By E. L. Hendricks

President Central Missouri State Teachers College, Warrensburg, Mo.

Equality of educational opportunities is a farce in America. Within the present month I left a city-school system with modern facilities to visit a one-room rural school with none. This rural school is located on a hard-surfaced highway leading from Washington to San Francisco. Airplanes carry mail over it. It is within view of several other rural schools not unlike itself. From its physical elevation it looks down on the county seat and a State teachers' college. This rural school has a total of four pupils. It has no library. Its untrained teacher receives a salary of $60 a month. She admitted her dissatisfaction.

There is no greater problem in the field of education than the one-room rural school, and we have more than 150,000 of them. If we keep the world safe for democracy, the rural child must have educational opportunities equal to those of the city children. Education must prepare for rural as well as city life. "Where there is no vision the people perish."

Mussolini proposes a new electoral law in Italy wherein universal suffrage will be abolished and only the fit will have the right to vote. Has not the Italian dictator uncovered a fundamental weakness in our form of government? He says:

> When the sheep lead the shepherd, when soldiers can conduct a campaign better than trained generals, when sailors can command a battleship in action, then democracy will be a safe form of government.

If Mussolini were a schoolmaster he might say that when rural schools are equal to city schools in equipment, length of term, and when they have teachers so well trained that they can lead administrators, conduct educational campaigns, and command a battle in action, then we shall have equality of educational opportunities. Education fails to function in rural districts as certainly as democracy fails to function in a national election. Will Durant says that we make education a disqualification for office in America. Have you never seen the ignorant look down upon the man who chances to be educated? A democracy that functions requires that all its citizens be educated.

The teacher in the rural school is paid $750 a year and a city teacher is paid $1,900. The one has one year of experience without supervision and the other has five years of experience with supervision. The one teacher is a high-school graduate and the other a college graduate. The rural school has a library of 100 books and the city school has a library of 5,000 books.

The Indiana rural education survey committee shows that only 40 per cent of the one-room rural teachers become identified with the community where they teach. Reasons given for the desire to change their locations are as follows: Fewer grades to teach, better buildings, better supervision and administration, better salaries, and better living conditions.

I desire to remind you of the *instructional* rather than the *administrative* needs of in-service training for rural-school teachers. How may the rural-school teacher secure in-service training? The importance of this question appears when we realize that, if proper training and administration were given the rural schools, one year at least could be saved each child in attendance. This in itself would be a gain of 350,000 years.

If the economic and social conditions invite the rural teacher with no professional training and little academic preparation, how may she secure in-service training?

I have before me a list of 33 methods of improvement while in service. I shall not name them all. I prefer rather to remind you that this training may be secured (1) through activities outside the schoolroom or (2) by help within. Among the outside activi-

ties is attendance at district, State, and National meetings. Another outside help is the extension center. Correspondence study may help. The summer school is of more positive value, as its popularity would indicate. The greatest opportunity for in-service training is within the system in which one teaches, for the public-school system is our greatest laboratory for experimentation.

Of the many internal facilities for in-service training I have time to indicate but one. This is supervision. I hasten to say that I consider it the most important means of in-service training. How may it be secured?

Three sources of rural-school supervision appear. First, the State department of education may provide rural-school inspectors. This method is illustrated in the States of Missouri, Minnesota, Florida, South Dakota, and South Carolina. A limited number of inspectors can be provided. They can not visit each rural school to direct the teaching process, but they can render a fine service in administration as well as teaching. We could well have a director of supervisors in our State departments to cooperate with county superintendents and thus coordinate the work of all.

A second method of providing rural-school supervision is illustrated in Maryland, where the State pays two-thirds of the minimum salary schedule of local supervisors. Every 80 rural schools secure one supervisor; from 80 to 119 teachers are given two; 120 to 185 have three; at a like ratio a county with 286 teachers secures six supervisors.

In Nevada the five districts are each given a supervisor, each of whom receives an annual salary of $2,400, plus $900 traveling expenses, plus $500 office help. The State pays all.

In Virginia the State pays one-half or two-thirds of the salaries of rural supervisors. A number of other States provide supervisors. For example, in Wisconsin the State, through the county superintendent, provides one supervisor, and if the county has more than 125 schools, two supervisors. Nine States now provide some support for rural-school supervisors.

A third method is illustrated in the Central Missouri State Teachers College, Warrensburg, Mo., where a regular member of the faculty remains in the rural schools during the academic year. In the summer terms this rural-school supervisor, who has all the qualifications of a faculty member, teaches rural-school courses wherein the value of rural-school supervision is pointed out. May it sometime be a profession within itself? In pointing out this third method of rural-school supervision I beg to ask if it is not possible that our teachers colleges can render this service better than the State departments? Teachers colleges are laboratories. They are provided with the necessary equipment and need only financial sup-

port. Should they not supervise all teacher-training activities supported by the State? Is it not in keeping with our democratic principles that our teachers' colleges should train for rural teaching as thoroughly as for town and city teaching? Is it not within the province of the teachers college to train for all phases of educational work from the preschool to the college, if not for the latter also? The requirement of less preparation on the part of our rural-school teachers will not be tolerated in time to come any more than less salaries will be offered rural teachers. Indeed, the public will learn in the course of time that a majority of our children are yet in the rural schools and that if leadership is expected from the country the youth of our country must be educated.

I here present a summary of the report of a rural-school supervisor at the Teachers College of Warrensburg, Mo.:

Lafayette County, November 2 to 6, 1927. Schools where meetings were held—Beattie, Hazel Hill, Locust Grove, Starr, Ferguson:

Classes taught by demonstrator	27
Teachers attending the meetings	86
Pupils present	175
Number of patrons present	92
Visitors from other districts	27
High-school teachers present	3
Teacher-training students present	38
Teacher-training teachers present from Odessa, Higginsville, Lexington, and Hardin in Ray County	4

I call attention to the fact that this supervisor taught in the week 25 classes. I mention this because an observation of her work indicates the value of demonstration teaching. I beg you to know also that 92 patrons were present. When patrons, pupils, and teacher work together we have a school. In conversation with this trained and successful supervisor I learned that if her wishes were gratified she would have rural-school teachers prepared for their specific work in a teachers' college. She would convince school boards that only qualified teachers should be employed. And is she not right? Is there any necessity of employing less skilled teachers in the country? Is there any need of paying them smaller salaries or of having only a four or six months' term of school? Certainly not. True economy will give equal opportunity to rural life.

Doubtless this supervisor would not attempt to visit the rural schools of more than one county. Indeed, some counties would demand several supervisors. She would have an adequate course of study and plans and she would learn if they were followed. She would give demonstration lessons in subjects wherein teachers are weakest and insist on tangible results. The last condition enumerated is important, for some teachers can witness a splendid demonstration lesson with complacency and thereafter ignore it. If

standards are presented there must be means provided for attaining them. The supervisor needs to know that they have been attained.

Finally, it should be borne in mind that after salaries are adjusted and length of terms equalized, after the course of study is presented to an educated teacher, after all programs are adjusted and all machinery in working order—after all has been done, it is the personality of the rural teacher as well as the personality of the supervisor that spells success. Count Herman Keyserling say[illegible]ebruary Forum) that we believe too much in institutions, programs, and like; that we believe too much in measures, not in men. "It is a fact," he says, "that everything great in this world has been accomplished by personalities and not by collectivities." And as we listen to the count we recall that the German system, even the army methods, were adopted in our educational system. Berlin now decries coordination. In London each school does as it pleases. In America let us retain our system but let us emphasize the importance of personality in each individual teacher and supervisor.

Wherever supervision is established a long term for its services should be provided, for years will pass before a county unit of administration will be general. Physical conditions will delay consolidation. The one-room rural school is with us. We must make it efficient.

I do not mean to pass lightly the value of the larger unit of administration nor of consolidation. The report of the Indiana committee shows that it costs more to maintain the rural schools, while their service is less efficient. The larger unit would permit "the taxing of wealth where it is for the children where they are."

There can be no doubt concerning the valuable results of rural-school supervisors. Only one thing remains to be done, and that is persuade the taxpayers that it is an economical procedure. Teachers must do this. No State can afford not to provide for its rural teachers. A report from North Carolina shows conclusively that the supervised group of rural-school teachers more than doubled in progress the unsupervised group. They made two and one-fourth times as much progress, to be accurate. Craven County, N. C., reports that on the basis of increasing progress that particular county purchases $7.92 worth of instruction for each dollar spent for rural-school supervision.

The conference of rural-school supervisors of the Southeastern States at Raleigh, N. C., in December is propitious. Rural-school supervision is advancing rapidly in the Southern States, both in financial support and in the character of supervision provided.

We have faith that in time our democratic form of government will provide equal educational opportunities for its future citizens. What a glorious day for our civilization when educational qualifica-

tions may be required of all officeholders. In order to meet such a day we must have in-service training for our rural-school teachers. Facilities are at hand or may be created. There is no need of poor rural schools in America.

RECENT PROGRESS IN PREPARING THE PERSONNEL FOR POSITIONS IN RURAL EDUCATION

By JULIAN E. BUTTERWORTH
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As I have interpreted the objectives of this conference, there are two questions which this paper may well consider: (1) What evidence have we that the training period for rural-school workers has or has not increased? (2) What evidence have we that more adequate facilities are being provided for the training of rural-school workers? The evidence that I am able at this time to present must, because of limitations in time, be taken largely from secondary sources, though some few data regarding the developments in certain institutions during the postwar period will be presented.

I. What evidence have we that the training period for rural-school workers has or has not increased?

A. In the five-year period between 1921 and 1926 real progress was made in raising the minimum standards for certificates. Table 1 presents data collected by Mrs. Katherine M. Cook, of the Bureau of Education, regarding scholarship prerequisites for certificating teachers without experience. This table shows that, while there was no State in 1921 that had a prerequisite of high-school graduation plus two years of training of higher grade, there were four States in 1926—Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Utah, and Washington—with such certificate standards. In 1921 there was no State with high-school graduation and professional training plus one year of advanced training, but in 1926 there were nine—Arizona, Indiana, Michigan, New Hampshire, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Wisconsin, and Vermont. In 1921 there were 30 States without a definite scholarship requirement, but in 1926 there were only 15.

TABLE 1.—*Scholarship prerequisites for certificating teachers without experience (temporary and emergency certificates not considered)*[1]

Minimum scholarship prerequisites	Number of States in 1921	Number of States in 1926
I. High-school graduation and 2 years' training of higher grade	0	4
II. High-school graduation and professional training, 1 year of higher grade	0	9
III. High-school graduation and some professional training, but less than 1 year	4	[2] 14
IV. 4 years' secondary school (may or may not include professional courses)	[2] 14	6
V. No definite scholarship requirement	30	[2] 15

[1] Cook, Katherine M.: *State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates.* Bull. Bu. of Ed., 1927, No. 19, p. 16.
[2] In some cases exact classification is difficult because the differences in situations are small and hard to measure. The careful student should study the data as presented on pp. 12-16 of the reference cited.

Since it is the rural school that has generally had to take the teacher of least training, such progress in minimum certificate standards is encouraging to those particularly interested in that field.

B. I have not had the time to search all the literature for quantitative measures of the improvement in length of training of rural teachers during recent years. Such as I have found should be considered as illustrative merely of the developments. They may or may not be typical. The recent survey (1927) in Virginia [11] shows that the percentage of those holding the elementary certificate (representing about one year above high-school graduation or less) decreased from 85.4 per cent in 1918–19 to 62.2 in 1926–27. In Pennsylvania [12] it was estimated that 14 per cent of the one-teacher schools were taught by normal-school graduates in 1917, while in 1926–27 the percentage was 22.4.

In 1914 H. W. Foght, of the Bureau of Education, secured data regarding training from 2,941 rural teachers in 55 widely scattered and presumably representative counties.[13] These show that only 3.2 per cent were normal-school graduates, that 45 per cent were high-school graduates, and that 4 per cent had less than eight years of elementary school training. Thirty-two per cent had had no professional training. Since less than one-half the teachers to whom the inquiry blank was sent responded, and since the better-trained ones are most likely to be sufficiently interested and willing to give the data, the facts presented probably overstate rather than understate the real situation at that time.

In 1924–25, 6.8 per cent of one-room rural teachers of Indiana had had 70 or more weeks of training beyond high school.[14] In Missouri, in 1923, 9.5 per cent of the teachers in rural and unclassified districts had had two years or more of normal school training.[15] The Utah survey reports, for the one-teacher schools, 45 per cent with two or more years of training,[16] while in Connecticut, in 1923, the percentage was 34.[17]

These data show that considerable progress has been made in the percentage of rural teachers who have had two years of training beyond high school since Foght's study in 1914, but they at the same time emphasize the degree to which we fall short of having as a minimum standard our prevailing ideal of normal-school graduation.

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[11] *Public Education in Virginia*, Division 1.
[12] Myers, Charles E., *Normal School Graduates in One-Teacher Schools*. Research Bull. No. 2, Pennsylvania State Ed. Assoc.
[13] Foght, H. W., *Efficiency and Preparation of Rural School Teachers*, Bull. Bu. of Ed., 1914, No. 49, p. 5.
[14] Report of the Indiana Rural Education Survey Committee (1926), p. 41.
[15] Facts Concerning Public Education in Missouri (1924), p. 89.
[16] Survey of Education in Utah (1926), p. 333.
[17] Report of Committee on Training Teachers for Rural Schools, p. 1.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage of graduates from normal school and teachers' college curricula going into different types of school* [1]

	2-year curricula [2]		3-year curricula [3]		4-year curricula [4]	
	Rural	Village	Rural	Village	Rural	Village
1910	9.7	28.4	5.1	42.4	0.6	17.6
1915	9.0	36.4	5.9	30.2	.6	32.3
1920	6.0	29.1	2.3	54.2	.4	31.0

[1] Data adapted from Tables 1, 2, and 3 in Benson, C. E., *The Output of Professional Schools for Teachers*, pp. 6–10. Warwick & York, 1922.
[2] Percentages based upon 1,604 graduates from 15 institutions in 1910, 2,353 graduates from 15 institutions in 1915, and 2,079 graduates from 17 institutions in 1920.
[3] Percentages based upon 59 graduates from 2 institutions in 1910, 120 graduates from 5 institutions in 1915, and 131 graduates from 7 institutions in 1920.
[4] Percentages based upon 171 graduates from 6 institutions in 1910, 338 graduates from 8 institutions in 1915, and 551 graduates from 8 institutions in 1920.

C. A study published in 1922 presents data indicating certain tendencies apparently contrary to those just shown. In Table 2 are given data, from Benson's study, of the percentage of graduates of normal schools and teachers' colleges going into different types of teaching positions. For example, in 1910, 9.7 per cent of the graduates of two-year curricula went into rural service (one or two room or consolidated schools in the open country); 9 per cent in 1915; while in 1920 the percentage was only 6. The percentage going into village schools (100 to 1,000 population) was 28.4, 36.4, and 29.1 for each year, respectively. On combining these two sets of data we see that there was a slight increase in percentage of normal graduates going into rural service from 1910 to 1915 and a marked decrease from 1915 to 1920. The decreased percentages for 1920 may be explained by the dearth of trained teachers during the period 1918 to 1922. It is quite possible also that, since the largest number of teacher-training institutions included in this study was 17, the true situation as to rural teaching in those years is not revealed.

It should be added that a supplementary study of 55 schools made by the same investigator showed 8 per cent of the graduates in 1920 going into one-room schools the first year after graduation.

II. What evidence have we that more adequate facilities for training rural-school workers are being provided?

A. Few rural-school leaders have ever considered the county normal school and the high-school training class as more than temporary agencies to meet an acute situation. Nevertheless, these institutions have had an important influence in rural education, especially in the training of teachers for the one-room school. Table 3 shows that there was a marked increase in their influence from 1912 to 1917. The number of States legally authorizing such schools and classes had increased from 13 to 21, the number of reported departments from 654 to 1,493, the approximate number of students from 8,412

to 27,111, and the approximate number of graduates from 4,848 to 16,626. By 1922–23 there was a further increase to 24 States, 1,712 departments, and 30,947 students. However, in 1925–26 there was a noticeable decrease, there being 21 States and 1,474 departments. This decrease does not, of course, indicate increased efficiency in the training of rural teachers, except as adequate facilities of a better type were provided to take their place. This has not always been the case.

TABLE 3.—*Development of the county normal school and the high-school training class*

Year	States	Training departments	Approximate number of students	Approximate number of graduates	Number of States requiring as minimum for entrance completion of grade—				
					8	9	10	11	12
1912 [1]	13	654	8,412	4,848	2				
1916–17 [2]	21	1,493	27,111	[3] 16,626	[4] 4	1	7	5	5
1922–23 [5]	24	1,712	30,947		0	0	10	8	6
1925–26	[6] 21	[7] 1,474							[8] 5

[1] Burnham, Ernest, *Rural Teacher Preparation in State Normal Schools*, Bul. Bu. of Ed., 1918, No. 27, p. 12.

[2] These data from Foght, H. W., *Rural-Teacher Preparation in County Training Schools and High Schools*, Bul. Bu. of Ed., 1917, No. 31, p. 10.

[3] No data on this item are reported from Florida.

[4] One of these is Wisconsin, which sets, as the minimum for entrance to the county training school, graduation from the eighth grade, but for entrance to the training class in the high school, completion of 2 years of high-school work.

[5] These date from Carney, Mabel, *Preparation of Rural Teachers in High Schools*, Rural-School Leaflet No. 33, U. S. Bu. of Ed., 1924.

[6] From Robinson, W. M., *County Normal Schools and Teacher-Training High Schools* (for whites), Rural-School Circular No. 15, U. S. Bu. of Ed., 1926. Though the number of States is the same as in 1916–17, this 1926–27 list lacks 5—Maryland, Nevada, North Dakota, Oregon, and Virginia—found in the former. To take their places Georgia, Montana, South Dakota, Tennessee, and Wyoming have instituted such courses.

[7] Data from Georgia not included; in 1922–23 this State reported 47 schools.

[8] Beginning with 1926–27, North Carolina and Wisconsin are to be classified in this group, along with Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, and Vermont. Nevada, which had required 4 years of high-school work, discontinued the training class at the end of 1922–23.

More significant than the number of States having such courses, the number of departments maintained or the number of students enrolled is the standard set for these schools. Here some progress is to be seen. While four States in 1916–17 permitted pupils to enter these classes on completion of the eighth grade and one State on the completion of the ninth grade, no State in 1922–23 admitted on less than the completion of the tenth grade. Five States—Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, and Vermont—required completion of the twelfth grade for admission in 1925–26, while North Carolina and Wisconsin made such a requirement to go into effect in 1926–27.

B. Burnham [18] found only three normal schools that offered differentiated courses for rural teachers before 1905. In 1912 a study of 50 normal schools in the Middle West showed that 27 had a special course of study for this group.[19]

[18] Burnham, Ernest, *A Decade of Progress in Training Rural Teachers*, Proc. Nat. Ed. Assoc., 1915, p. 802.

[19] Hayes, D. W., *The Special Training of Teachers for the Rural Schools*, Proc. Nat. Ed. Assoc., 1912, p. 857.

In 1918 Burnham [20] found that 140 normal schools listed special courses for rural teachers.

Of this number, 77 schools were shown to have departments of rural education in which the differentiated courses were administered and, in part, taught, while 63 had these special courses under general administration and taught in the department to which the several subjects belonged.

Fifty normal schools were then, according to the information at hand, differentiating practice teaching for rural teachers. For this purpose 124 schools in the country and 6 located on the normal-school campus were being used.

In 1923 the Bureau of Education found [21] that 77 universities and colleges were offering 124 courses in rural education, 52 teachers' colleges were offering 140 courses, and 70 normal schools 116 courses. In all, 199 institutions were offering 380 such courses.

In 1924–25 Miss Slee analyzed [22] the catalogues of 139 normal schools and teachers' colleges for white students and found that 74, or 53.2 per cent, were offering 99 differentiated curricula for teachers of one-room schools. Of these, 65.7 per cent set high-school graduation as the basis for admission; 3 per cent, completion of the eleventh grade; 13.1 per cent, tenth grade; 1 per cent, completion of the ninth grade; and 17.2 per cent, completion of the eighth grade. The situation as to entrance was not greatly improved during the six years since Burnham's study, though it must be remembered that he included all types of rural courses and curricula, while Miss Slee eliminated all designated for training rural supervisors, rural normal training critics, and other rural leadership courses.

Through the courtesy of Prof. Mabel Carney, of Teachers College, Columbia University, I am enabled to give a summary of some data collected on this matter in the spring of 1927. Mr. Verne McGuffey and Mr. R. E. Bunting sent inquiry blanks to 183 State normal schools and teachers' colleges. Of 149 schools from which replies were received, 123 were performing some special service in rural education, while 23 were doing nothing. In 60 institutions there were distinct groups of rural students enrolling 6,467 students of college grade and 1,153 of high-school grade. Of 113 institutions, 95 were offering a two-year curriculum above high school; 53, one of 1 year; 46, one of 4 years; 21, one of 3 years; 13, below college rank. There were 50 rural clubs in existence, with a total membership of 3,885. Fifty-four institutions in 34 States maintained 427 rural practice schools. Of these, 343 were one-teacher schools off the campus; 10, one-teacher schools on the campus; and 74, consolidated

[20] Burnham, Ernest, *Rural-Teacher Preparation in State Normal Schools*, Bull. Bu. of Ed., 1918, No. 27, pp. 12–13.

[21] Cook, Katherine M., *Courses in Rural Education Offered in Universities, Colleges, and Normal Schools*. Rural School Leaflet No. 37. U. S. Bu. of Ed., 1925.

[22] Slee, Mary Alice, *Some Aspects of the Training of Teachers for the One-Room Schools*, Jour. Rural Ed., V, pp. 50–56, Sept.–Oct., 1925.

schools. Ninety-one schools were doing some form of extension in the way of correspondence courses, group study courses, supervision, conferences, club work, promoting consolidation, and the like. Of 62 schools reporting a separate rural budget, 4 schools were spending over $25,000 each and 1 over $100,000.

These data make it clear that considerable progress has been made in providing differentiated courses for rural-school service. It can not, of course, be claimed that teacher-training schools that do not believe in differentiated courses for this work are entirely neglecting the rural problem. It is possible to train for the peculiar problems in rural service without labeling the courses "rural." At the same time it may fairly be claimed that differentiated courses (1) call attention to the special needs of the field; (2) make possible a homogeneous grouping of persons interested in those problems; (3) aid in developing an esprit de corps; and (4) perhaps have some influence upon those who have tended to consider rural education a field for the professionally inferior.

C. We may find it enlightening to turn from these mass figures to developments that have taken place in particular institutions in recent years. The statements are prepared from data submitted by the different schools.

At the Ypsilanti (Mich.) State Normal College there were two rural curricula in 1919–20, one two years in length above high-school graduation and another requiring one year and one summer to complete. By 1926–27 a third curriculum, four years in length, for supervisory and teacher-training workers was being offered. In 1919–20, 13 students, or 1.1 per cent of the entire enrollment of the school for that year, were in the two-year curricula, while in 1926–27, 209, or 8.1 per cent of all, were in the three-year curricula. The number of graduates increased from 10 to 183. In 1919–20 there was one 1-room training school for practice and observation, while in 1926–27 there was one consolidated training school, one 2-teacher school, and two 1-teacher schools. Besides these there were 30 affiliated rural schools for demonstration and practice in rural-school supervision.

The Western State Teachers' College at Kalamazoo, Mich., shows also an interesting development. The first curriculum in rural education was organized in 1905 with four students and required only two years and two summers above the eighth grade for completion. In 1914 this was discontinued after graduating 248 students. In 1909 a second curriculum was added, beginning four years after the completion of the eighth grade. In 1920 this was discontinued after graduating 245 students. A third curriculum was begun in 1913, requiring one year and one summer above high school for completion, and in 1917 a fourth, requiring two years above the high school.

These two courses are still being offered. In all, 1,685 students have been graduated in all curricula since 1905. All figures are given as approximately rather than exactly correct.

These schools are among those that have made significant progress. Others have not been so fortunate. Some complain that politics has interfered; others that students do not select the subjects offered; still others frankly follow a policy of nondifferentiation.

D. It is becoming increasingly evident that, along with the training of the rural teacher to meet her peculiar problems, we need to offer special training for the person who supervises her work and the one who administers the rural-school system. Administrators and supervisors not only have the opportunity to stimulate teachers to do their best, but, by improving the conditions under which schools operate, tend to attract and hold the well-trained teacher.

An analysis of data from Rural School Leaflet, No. 37, United States Bureau of Education, 1925, shows that in 1923, 74 courses were offered in rural-school administration and 31 in rural-school supervision and closely related subjects.

Courses in rural-school administration and supervision offered in universities and colleges[1]

Courses	Offered in—			
	Universities and colleges	Teachers colleges	Normal schools	All
Courses in rural-school administration	31	35	8	74
Courses in rural-school supervision	9	17	5	31

[1] Cook, Katherine M., *Courses in Rural Education Offered in Universities, Colleges, and Normal Schools*, Rural School Leaflet, No. 37, U. S. Bu. of Ed., 1925.

E. Perhaps one of the most significant movements in this field is the development of graduate work. Lack of specific data prevents our describing the activities of more than two institutions.

At Teachers College, Columbia University, the first specialized course in rural education was offered by Prof. F. G. Bonser in the summer of 1912. There were 31 students enrolled. Between that date and February, 1928, 3,209 different students have been enrolled. Of these, 2,143 have been in attendance during the period of September, 1918, to February, 1928. The annual enrollment of different individuals now averages about 200 a year, of which 75 are in the regular academic year and 125 in the summer session. In 1919–20, eight courses, with 18 hours of credit and an enrollment of 128, were offered, including one course in rural sociology and economics and two in home making in rural communities. In 1926–27, nine courses, with a credit value of 20 hours, were offered to 127 students. Twenty-

five doctors' dissertations dealing with specialized phases of rural education have been written and a very large number of masters' degrees granted. At the present time six men and six women are matriculated for the doctor's degree in rural education.

At Cornell the department of rural education was in 1919–20 offering two graduate courses, with six hours of credit, in the field of general rural education. In 1927–28, 14 such courses, with 37 hours of credit, are being offered. All these are in the general rural field, eliminating such offerings of basic subjects as educational psychology and philosophy of education and such highly specialized courses for rural workers as those in agricultural and home-making education, nature study, and extension teaching. The offerings in these lines, which are exclusively for graduate students, amount to 38 credit hours. Rural sociology and rural economics are organized in separate departments and are not, of course, included in the statements given above. Since 1919–20, 5 doctors' degrees and 17 masters' degrees have been granted in the general field of rural education. Besides these, 16 have done the equivalent of one year of graduate work. These figures again exclude students in agriculture, home making, nature study, rural sociology, and the like. In all these fields, 7 doctors' and 41 masters' degrees have been conferred since 1919–20. At present there are nine men and one woman in either the second or third year of graduate work majoring in general rural education.

At Peabody College for Teachers 14⅔ hours of specialized rural courses carrying graduate credit were offered in 1919–20. In 1926–27, during the regular year and the summer session, 29⅓ hours were offered. This does not include one course in rural sociology offered at each period. In 1919–20 the total enrollment in all graduate courses in rural education was 41; in 1926–27 it was 91. No master's or doctor's degree was granted in 1919–20, while in 1926–27, 6 master's degrees were conferred. During the period from 1919–20 to 1926–27 a total of 18 master's degrees and 2 doctor's degrees have been granted in rural education.

Other institutions, for example, Ohio State University, actually give graduate training to a large number of persons working in the smaller communities, even though the courses are not designated as "rural."

Such data as these are encouraging to those who are actually engaged in helping rural sections to secure a teacher as well trained as the one in the city. Even though the progress has in some cases been marked both in standards of training actually achieved and in facilities provided for that training, there is a long and difficult road ahead before even reasonable minimum standards will be attained. Myers estimated that, if factors that have been at work in

Pennsylvania should continue to operate, it would be 77 years[23] before that State would have a normal graduate in every one-room school. Clearly a public-spirited society, such as ours appears to be, should be able to achieve reasonable standards in a shorter time.

As I see it, we should direct our energy to the control of such factors as these: Low salaries and unattractive living conditions often found in the rural areas; local units of administration that are too small and inefficiently organized; inadequate programs of State financing; a feeling on the part of many teachers and some normal schools that rural-school service is a mark of inferiority; a failure to realize that, while there are many similar elements between rural and urban service, there are many dissimilar elements and that these call for special training.

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[23] Myers, C. E., *Normal School Graduates in One-Teacher Schools*, Research Bulletin of the Pennsylvania State Education Association, No. 2.